AN EVALUATION OF THE PROVISION AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO COLLEGES OF EDUCATION: A PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PERSPECTIVE

BY

GORDON CHARLES NICHOLLS

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Administration in the Department of Public Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration at the University of Durban-Westville.

VOLUME TWO

Promoter:

DR D SING

Submitted: 1992

CHAPTER SIX

6 ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS IN EDUCATION

CHAPTER SEVEN

7 TEACHER EDUCATION WITHIN HIGHER EDUCATION

CHAPTER EIGHT

CHAPTER NINE

10 **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATIONS, DIAGRAMS AND MODELS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER SIX

6 ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS IN EDUCATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

No proposals for the provision of teacher education would be complete without a consideration of the economic and financial factors. Economic theory provides the principled backdrop to the provision of education by the State, whilst financial factors are relevant at the micro level. Economic factors involve a macro view of what *should or should not* be done, although political and societal factors are as central as economic factors in the theoretical and practical overview. Financial factors relate to what *can or can not* be done, given economically desirable principles. At an economic level, free education for everyone at every stage of education may make sense to one economist, but if the finances are not available, this desirable principle needs to be attenuated to accommodate economic realities or resource limitations. For another economist, the ideal may be that no public finances should be expended at all on education, yet this would have financial implications for the citizens and the economy as a whole. Deciding where the balance should be will be a sociopolitical and an economic compromise based on the financial resources of the country and the views of its citizens. Such factors will be explicated and recommendations for financing teacher education will flow from these perspectives and their implications.

6.2 THE NEED FOR EDUCATION

Commencing with the fundamental and basic arguments surrounding economics and education, we need to consider why we should educate persons at all. We could conceive of a small ruling class of persons who pass on their skills from generation to generation. These 'philosopher kings', in the Plato tradition, could run a society of uneducated workers and schooling would not be required. However, we do not live in a "Brave New World", a manufactured utopia of Aldous Huxley proportions. Our modern society requires education and relies on educated people. Education is part of the ethos of our society and is considered intrinsic to our culture.

There are certain educational outcomes which are considered essential for each and every citizen in our society. It is considered mandatory for all the children in the country to be functionally literate and numerate in order to participate in our society. Education is also considered necessary to 'develop' the self and to impart people skills, life skills and coping skills so that persons understand and can participate and function in the society of which they are a part. This implies making every child into a responsible citizen of our society by socialising him to our society and imparting the skills to communicate, to articulate his own value system and to understand the common value systems of his society and to develop a positive self image so that he can be active and proactive on his own behalf (Syncom 1986:21).

Education is required to impart basic skills which are necessary to function as a person and in society. The person must learn to think, to create, to learn and to see the relationship between what is learned and the world around him. The van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974) extended this principle to its ultimate level by holding that every person should be educated to his intellectual capacity. This ideal may not be considered feasible on financial grounds, but there is a common agreement that everyone has a right to the basic intellectual skills, if not to the higher order skills arising therefrom, according to their ability. Some (Marais 1986:43) extend these basic skills to include an experiential understanding of the basic laws of economics and of applied science in the form of technology.

This line of belief holds that society will always have a financial responsibility to provide its future citizens with the basics at an intrinsic level. Others hold a more instrumental view and claim that the aim of education should be conceived in terms of both the needs of the individual and the demands of society (de Villiers Commission 1948 in Dreijmanis 1988:76).

One of the needs of the society is economic. Education may be valued as an instrument of a country's economic progress. One of the main purposes of education may be held to be to equip the individual to earn a living and, in so doing, to provide society with persons who have the necessary skills to carry out the economic functions upon which the material well-being of society is dependent.

What then are the perceived economic benefits of education?

6.3 BENEFITS OF EDUCATION

Education makes democracy possible in that educated persons can absorb the political issues with understanding and act on them appropriately. Education makes people more receptive to new ideas and more aware of better ways of doing things, which equates with the concept of 'progress', and this is considered desirable. The specialised training needed in a technological society, such as the South African society, requires a basic stock of knowledge to build on. One cannot learn technology solely *via* the apprenticeship method.

Benefits that accrue from education may be personal benefits or public benefits. The personal benefits of education include aspects such as a wider range of occupational choice for the person, a higher income, a lower risk of unemployment and increased occupational mobility. (Butcher 1972:352) These advantages tend to increase with higher levels of education, but they are not infallible.

Teachers, for example, feel that there are factors that militate against the applicability of these benefit factors in their world. As they are employed in the public sector, where salaries tend to be determined institutionally rather than being based on economic considerations, they feel that they are not paid according to their contribution, as free market principles do not apply, especially with a virtual monoply by the employing authority in any region. Then many teachers are kept on a temporary employment basis as this

facilitates the administration being able to employ loan obligation students by firing temporary staff experienced teachers. Such factors are relevant when considering financing and the provision of teacher education. However, not all the personal benefits of teaching are economic or tangible. The joy of working with children, or influencing the lives of the next generation, or the opportunity to coach sport or produce plays, may not be reflected in the benefits associated with a teacher's conditions of service, but they could be a direct and real personal benefit for that teacher.

Similarly society may receive direct economic benefits from the education of its children, and it may receive indirect or external benefits such as the transmission of values, the creation of a politically informed electorate and the development of leadership (Woodhall 1970:12). Psacharopoulos (1987:134) cites some of the external benefits as, a more effective democracy, more efficient markets, a better adaptation to technical change, lower crime rates, and lower costs for welfare, public medical benefits and unemployment payments. In this way, from education one receives political and social consequences in terms of a more stable and balanced society. Similarly cultural benefits arise from education, which are not always reflected in measurable returns such as economic returns.

6.4 ECONOMIC VALUE OF EDUCATION

In economic terms, the value of education has been generally conceded, but the extent of the economic value of education is the source of much speculation and academic dispute, especially as policy decisions must be made on the basis of such educational values. If a person is educated, this education has a private return and a public return. The private return is the increased economic reward, less the costs of acquiring the education. The costs of acquiring the education are refered to as opportunity costs and may refer to costs incurred for fees, books and transport, as well as any earnings which have been foregone in order to gain the qualification. In training a teacher, the State also incurs opportunity costs consumed as goods or services in providing the education. The student foregoes four years of earnings, plus any direct costs, as opportunity costs. Normal living expenses, such as clothing costs, are not part of the opportunity costs, as these costs would have been incurred in any event in order to live. However, a physical education outfit specific to study needs would be included in any assessment of the opportunity costs.

It can be appreciated that any benefits, perceived as outputs received from the resource inputs, are very difficult to measure. If education is associated with promoting political peace, as it is considered to do, these benefits are difficult to quantify. This makes any cost/benefit analysis difficult to assess, as costs are

relatively easy to quantify, whilst benefits are difficult to isolate and then difficult to assess in measurable terms.

The benefits of education have been assessed as accurately as possible under varying conditions. Reynolds (in Nasson 1990:144) refers to:

> "...the known high rate of social or incremental return to the country on expenditure at the primary level if children complete a full and well taught programme".

Similarly, Psacharopoulos (1987:4) stresses the benefit of having educated manpower, as one of the most crucial inputs in the economy of any country, as it is the basis out of which skilled workers are developed. The lack of such an education base, and the resultant shortage of skilled workers, is held to be the main constraint on economic growth in a country, and the South African experience is pertinent in this regard. Section 2(1)(d)(iv) of the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act, 1984 (Act 76 of 1984) encapsulates principle 4 in the de Lange Commission report *viz*:

> "The provision of education shall be directed in an educationally responsible manner at the needs of the individual and those of society and (at) the demands of economic development, and should take into account the manpower needs of the Republic".

The projected shortage of skilled manpower was one of the prime reasons for the de Lange Commission being constituted and its recommendations reflect the need for a basic universal and compulsory educational provision, together with the manpower planning aspects.

6.4.1 VOCATIONALISATION OF THE CURRICULUM

It must be clearly understood, however, that attempts to make the curriculum content vocationally relevant in a narrow vocational way can be, and often has been found to be, dysfunctional (Psacharopoulos 1987:305). C.S.Lewis maintained (in Crew 1977:18) that "If education is beaten by training, civilization dies". Foster (in Psacharopoulos 1987:100) makes the point forcefully:

> "Most of the literature tends to emphasize the greater importance of general education and the significance of literacy and numeracy in the development process. It is questionable whether highly specific forms of vocational and technical training represent an efficient form of investment unless they are closely geared to on-the-job experience and actual labor market conditions...Formal schooling is essentially complementary in nature to less formal systems that impart such vocational skills and the weakness of many earlier education strategies lay in their disregard of the existence of highly efficient informal education structures...This, in turn, implies the greater importance of basic and primary education in development, particularly in the less developed countries".

Malherbe (1977:624-5) concurs that education should not be made too vocational. He holds that the more basic and general the training is, the more useful it will be as a background for specific training on the job. The stronger the infrastructure of a country's general education is, the more rewarding will be the efforts in specific education. Specific training requires retraining every few years making a specific schooling less valuable than a general education. In addition, the cost of providing such 'vocation specific' schooling is prohibitive and is best left to industry according to its needs.

6.4.2 EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

The evidence of the economic benefit of education has been a matter of some controversy. In sub-Saharan Africa, the phenomenon of unemployed or underemployed graduates recurs in country after country. Yet Blishen (1969:219) has pointed out that rich nations tend to have more and better educated persons. Indeed this phenomenon has not only been noticed between nations, but within a particular nation over an historical time period. It is further held from research that the economic growth of a country cannot be explained purely in terms of capital accumulation and the growth of the labour force alone. Up to one half of a country's economic growth has been attributed to a residual factor, which is purported to be associated with education. Evidence has also been accumulated on the increased rate of return associated with enchanced expenditure on education. Blishen further makes the point that structural changes to the economy come with development and these changes are linked to an increased need for qualified manpower and a decreased need for unskilled and less qualified manpower. The message if clear: a country needs an educated populous in order to 'take off' economically when a certain stage of development is reached. However, mass education to tertiary levels is not what is being referred to by Blishen. More expenditure *up to a point* improves the quality of schooling. Thereafter the law of diminishing returns prevails and more education does not guarantee better jobs and better returns on the investment in human capital.

6.4.3 EDUCATION AND HUMAN CAPITAL

Education is viewed as a good or commodity in the concept of human capital. Education may be consumed as a good or service, and it can be perceived of as an investment as well, wherein capital is accumulated in the self. Thus Robbins (1963:204) in the Commission report states that a community that neglects education is as imprudent as a community that neglects material accumulation. The human capital theory holds that earnings are differentially in favour of highly educated manpower, which is reflected in a higher person productivity. This enhanced productivity is attributed to being as a result of knowledge and skills obtained in the process of gaining higher levels of education (Oxtoby 1980:8).

An alternative explanation to the human capital theory is the screening theory (credentialism), whereby the apparent benefits of higher education are said to result from its role in *selecting* individuals with already high levels of ability and motivation, rather than in causing them to *acquire* such attributes. When deciding on how much to fund education, the human capital approach is likely to result in more generous sponsorship than the credentialist approach, although the human capital theory appears to be implicit in much of the debate surrounding the funding of education. Even if the credentialist hypothesis is a clear reflection of the facts, it does not entirely invalidate the need to screen top manpower and leadership. It is, of course,

possible that each explanation of the facts has an element of truth and both would occur concurrently.

6.4.4 PRIVATE DEMAND AND PUBLIC DEMAND

We have seen above that there are public reasons and private reasons for educational provision. The demand for education may therefore be an individual or private demand wherein the emerging needs and aspirations of individual persons creates a demand for education. This is distinct from the educational demand based on the personnel requirements of society, which represents a public demand. The private demand cannot be underestimated in providing educational opportunities. The commentaries on the country's need for engineering and high level technical graduates are legion, yet the university arts, humanities and social science degrees are heavily oversubscribed demonstrating the power of private demand over public demand characteristics. Similarly 70% of the tertiary registrations are at universities which means that universities play too large a role in tertiary education (Trotter 1988:96), yet school leavers in South Africa have an antipathy towards technikon training which is cheaper, desperately needed and often in vocational areas where qualified persons would achieve financial success. In this way private demand would appear to bedevil the market forces, but they form a part of the market forces which cannot be expressed purely in monetary terms. Similarly teachers, although modestly remunerated, will select teaching as a career for private rather than purely economic reasons.

6.4.5 EDUCATION AS AN INVESTMENT

Education may expand for economic reasons, wherein persons or governments invest their resources (such as ability, time, money) either for a good economic return, or for social reasons, wherein social, cultural and personal economic benefits are gained. For this investment process to be effective, it is held (Blishen 1969:219) that the content of the curricula should be in accord with economic and social needs, that wastage caused by dropout or failure rates should be held to a minimum, that efficient use should be made of resources (eg teachers and physical amenities) and that the size of a class should be economically sufficient in relation to the age of the students and the subject being taught. Modern teaching aids could add to the economic efficiency.

If teacher education is considered as an investment, it tends not to be expensive in relation, say, to the research funding required by universitities for example, but it is a very labour intensive process. Teacher education involves education, training and professional socialisation, which demands interpersonal contact for much of its efficiency. Mass teacher education is a paradox in terminology and so teacher education is an expensive investment.

6.5 FUNDING OF TEACHER EDUCATION

A central tenet of this piece of research is that the funding of teacher education should not be considered in isolation. It needs to be taken into consideration in

relation to primary education and other tertiary education. It has been established that there is a substantial and urgent need for sufficient teachers of an acceptable calibre in South Africa. Thousands of teachers are required to effectively realise the ideal of compulsory and universal primary education for all pupils to the point of functional literacy (i.e. approximately seven year's of schooling). In addition, primary education, apart from its social returns, is considered a fundamental right for every person (Reynolds in Nasson 1990:145). Functional literacy creates the possibility of pursuing secondary and higher education. It is the basis for sustained national economic growth. It is far less expensive than secondary schooling *per* unit cost, and far more rewarding for the national economy as an investment and at a individual personal level in terms of an increment in the quality of life.

Most governments attach great importance to the role of educational investment as a stimulant to economic development. From the perspective of the social rates of return, it can be cogently argued that regimes would do well to continue to emphasise the expansion of primary schooling in view of its low cost and consequently substantial public and private benefits (Clarke 1985:221). In view of tertiary education's lower social rate of return, governments would be well advised to be cautious in expanding the provision of tertiary education, which is enormously expensive. The ratio of university to primary school costs *per capita* is frequently cited as being about 90:1. In other words, it

costs the same amount to educate one university student as it does to educate 90 primary school children. As investing in primary education yields the highest social payoff, the reallocation of money to primary education would enhance the efficiency in the allocation of financial resources (Mingat & Jee-Peng Tan 1986:284). This is especially true in developing countries. Clarke (1985:235) comments:

> "...they (i.e. the governments of sub-Saharan Africa) have belatedly recognised the significance of primary education in the process of economic development - in contrast to their earlier preoccupation with the production of high level manpower - and realise that they must focus their efforts on the provision and, more importantly, the qualitative improvement of primary schooling".

This importance of primary education *vis-a-vis* tertiary education should be reflected in funding programmes. Trotter (1988:96) holds that:

> "Very few people would contest the view that primary education is a 'public good' and should thus be completely subsidised by the state, and the same is usually felt about secondary education".

It is the contention of the writer that teacher education should be associated with the sentiments and beliefs surrounding the special place of primary education in society and that the provision of teachers should reflect the importance attributed to primary schooling. This has not been the state of affairs in South Africa. Whilst there is a dire shortage of teachers, with a disproportional class size in certain segments of the population, and well over two million children of school going age never having set foot in a classroom, the position is that 20% of the total education budget is spent on tertiary education, whereas

tertiary education represents only approximately 5% of the total formal educational enrollments. Tertiary education accounts for 25% of the aggregate social costs of education in the country (Trotter 1988:95). Ten times more money is spent on educating a tertiary student as is spent on educating a primary child. University admissions represent a disproportional amount of the tertiary enrollments, with some 70% of tertiary students studying at universities. Technikons and colleges of education are under-represented. In line with world trends, the govenment subsidises university education heavily by providing some 61% of university funding. Students at university contribute some 13% of the cost of their education. The balance is raised privately by the universities.

In order to consider the extent of funding and financial support that is appropriate for a government to provide for education, it is necessary to consider economic concepts such as the private and public costs and benefits *vis-a-vis* educational funding.

6.6 EDUCATION, GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Private earnings have followed the growth in productivity in the economy. Similarly, the economic development of a country is associated with a significant positive correlation with the amount of public money expended on education. The conclusion appears obvious; invest in human capital in the form of education, and economic growth and development will result. The difference between the similar

terms 'economic growth' and 'economic development' is that growth represents *more*, whilst development means achieving *more with the same* level of resources. Thus it is held that:

> "The wider the distribution of skills and knowledge *at* all levels of a society, the more potent education has been as a factor in the economic development of a country" (Malherbe 1977:606).

Such claims have been challenged however. The correlation between educational expenditure and economic development does not account for causality to be taken into account. Whereas growth may be attributed to educational spending, it is just as logical to attribute increased education spending on economic growth. With more financial resources, more can be spent on education. The relationships are probably more complex than the simple correlation would suggest. For example, the correlation between education and the Gross National Product (GNP) is not considered to be very high, as it depends on the material investment as well as on educational criterion. Yet some relationship between education and economic growth obviously does obtain. Denison (in Malherbe 1977:607) claims that for the United States of America, 23% of the economic growth is directly owed to investment in education at various levels (state, local, private). The relationship is not linear but nevertheless it is significant.

Education is not merely a commodity for engendering development. It is a value in our culture, it is a basic human right by all civilised standards, as well as being a

meaningful human capital investment. Hanf (in Totemeyer 1989:18) regards education as:

> "...a prime mover of economic progress, as a necessary condition for the rational functioning of the socio-economic structure and consequently, as a pre-condition for social order and political stability".

To achieve these desirable outcomes however, education must be linked to economic equality and opportunities. Education is fine, but not when it co-exists with poverty, unemployment and inequality which are associated with an underdeveloped society. Education should not generate unemployment if it is to fulfil its role of bringing about economic development. This may occur when education is producing people with the wrong kinds of skills. So education needs to be harnessed as an instrument for national economic planning, as a national investment, besides being a commodity to which the citizens have a right (Totemeyer 1989:19). This poses the question of the manner and desirability of the State intervention in educational provision.

6.7 JUSTIFICATION OF STATE EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION

We have seen that the provision of education is not purely an economic consideration and that the provision of basic education at least is perceived of as being essential rather than desirable. This idea is encapsulated thus:

> "Irrespective of whether there are tangible economic returns in public investments in human capital through

education, the State sees it as a *duty* to educate its children" (Author).

The de Lange Commission (Book 4, 1981:1) justifies State expenditure on education in that it enhances the individual's capacity to enjoy life and it equips him better to produce goods and services. The State expenditure on education should be perceived in terms of both an economic investment with a yield and a means of redistributing income, as the level of education is related to earnings. The Buthelezi Commission (1982:327) justifies State expenditure on education on three grounds *viz*:

(i) As the net public benefits are likely to be substantially greater than the net private benefits, the market on its own would tend to provide too little education, as the investment yield would be too meagre in relation to alternate investment opportunities;

(ii) parents and children are likely to be ignorant of the benefits that can flow from education, especially if the parents are poorly educated themselves, with low incomes, so that the potential advantages of investing in education are beyond their ken; and

(iii) government expenditure in education is a way of distributing income and educational opportunity, when the market forces do not provide the required balance.

Atkinson (1983:47) holds that:

> "It is generally accepted by economists that the State should provide - or finance - so called 'public' goods where the benefits are spread indiscriminately and do

> not benefit any individual. The classic example of this is defence. If the country is adequately defended, that is to the benefit of everyone in the country. It is sometimes argued that education is a public good...The case for public subsidies therefore depends on the existence of external or spillover benefits which accrue to others...(often)...these externalities cannot be measured and do not indicate what bulk of subsidy would be appropriate".

The basis of public finance expenditure is, therefore, that society as a whole should benefit. Where the provision (say of education) would be reduced or neglected if it were left entirely to private individuals to finance, so that the level or distribution of the provision would be less than optimal, it should become a public responsibility. This occurs when private individuals have no economic incentive to pay for public goods directly, so that it cannot be left to the market mechanism to provide them. So it is necessary for the government to tax individual members of society in order to pay for the service for society as a whole (Woodhall 1970:12).

The position is rather more complex than this however. The State cannot finance all alleged public goods and priorities must be set and limitations on provision and State spending applied. Private enterprise in South Africa is very unlikely to fund a space rocket probe to Venus. Some public good is likely to flow from such a venture in terms of national pride and technological advances, for example, yet the State could not become involved in such a venture without being accused of gross profligacy. Similarly in financing educational provision. Education is, it is argued, a public good. Yet higher education is not by its very nature a

universal phenomenon and not everyone benefits equally from expenditure on higher education, in comparison with primary education, for example, where this public good could arguably be categorised as universal and beneficial to everyone in the society.

6.7.1 STATE EXPENDITURE ON TERTIARY EDUCATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

In order to justify the expenditure on tertiary education, it is necessary to demonstrate that it generates benefits for society and that these benefits to society as a whole exceed the benefits to individuals, making it necessary for the government to provide funding from taxes. The position of university education in general will be considered in due course. With colleges of education, however, it is held that society benefits greatly from the provision of a sufficient quantity and quality of teaching personnel and the benefits to society exceed the individual benefit, especially for primary education. Psacharopoulos (in Hinchliffe 1987:9) has calculated the social rate of return for 16 African countries as being:

Primary Education	27
Secondary education	17
Higher education	12

Table 17 - The social rate of return in relation to levels of education

Thus any investment from the fiscus in primary education, and to a lesser, but still significant extent, in secondary education, will provide an excellent social rate of return on the investment, with the primary return being 2.25 times the higher education return. Then too, it has been noted that World Bank estimates indicate that up to 100 primary school children can be educated for the cost of one university student. Teacher educators are an integral part of the funding of primary education and warrant sympathetic consideration when it comes to funding for this reason.

Yet the other side of the coin needs to be considered. Teachers do benefit privately from their higher education and perhaps should not be so favourably considered? Are college of education graduates akin to university students in terms of their private rates of return based on their higher educational qualifications? Data is not readily available and the issue is not debated in the academic literature to any extent. A study in Australia (Harman & Selby Smith 1976:211) conducted in 1968/9 calculated the lifetime income of males as follows:

Less than senior certificate	$193 500
Senior certificate	$233 600
Degree	$334 400
Teaching degree	$246 000

Table 18 – The lifetime income of males according to their level of education

Thus whilst a degreed person earned more than 1.43 times what a matriculant earned (i.e. $100800 more) a person with a teaching degree only earned 1.05 more than a matriculant (i.e. $12400 more). The earning figures for college diplomates is unknown, but is likely to be less than that for degreed teachers. If these research figures are universalisable to any level, the case can be strongly made for a considerable increase in funding teacher training and education *vis-a-vis* general university funding.

6.7.2. STATE FUNDING OF TEACHER EDUCATION

It should be realised that by providing teacher education, the State is providing a direct economic benefit to the children in terms of better career opportunities and higher lifetime earnings. Although these private benefits are considerable, the public benefits exceed the direct benefits to the individual person (Woodhall 1970:12). It needs to be realised that the person who decides on teaching as a career is also making sacrifices which need to be taken into account. The opportunity costs relative to four year's loss of earnings is considerable. As the teaching salaries are not competitive in market terms, it takes a relatively long time to catch up on salary foregone during the four years of training.

The theory of persons investing in education for a yield, needs to be perceived in short term benefits as well as lifetime benefits. If a man matriculates at 18, trains to be a teacher for four years and completes the obligatory one

year of national service, at age 23 he needs to be in a equal or better position salarywise when compared with the school leaver who has worked after graduating from high school. Yet in the press, when teaching salary disputes are aired, the teaching salaries are quoted as not being competitive with public service salaries, let alone private sector salaries. This pressurises trained teaching personnel to leave teaching in order to achieve a reasonable standard of living.

In order to meet manpower needs, not only in quantitative terms, but in terms of the quality of the teachers recruited and trained, it is necessary to make the training costs of teachers a public financial investment. Although finances are limited and teachers are in short supply, it is the proposal of this research that teacher education should be funded almost exclusively by the State out of taxes, based on the rationale above. A special claim is made for primary schooling and teacher training in colleges to be provided by the State. There have been calls to reduce or curtail spending on education, and in particular teacher education, in order to reduce costs. Calls have been made to reduce the duration of teacher training to three years, or two years, or even one year, because of the financial strictures. This research perceives another alternative.

Woodhall (1983:52) referring to the reducing of the costs of education, felt that the school system and the pupils should not be made the scapegoat for the country's inability to control higher education costs. Similar arguments could be

presented for South Africa's position in educational funding. Universal, compulsory and free basic education to a level of functional literacy, say at least seven years of formal education, is a *sine qua non*, and primary teacher education provision is part of that necessity.

Vanessa Gaydon in the *"Race aginst the Ratios"* has calculated that R40 million could be saved in education provision if the racial admission strictures were to be dropped at colleges of education. The projected cost savings of a single Ministry of Education have varied according to the individual commentator, but are substantial.

Universities absorb a disproportional amount of the fiscal spending on education and savings could be effected in this sector, which could be used for primary and secondary education provision. If all teacher education was situated solely in the colleges of education, as happens in Scotland, this training would be cheaper because of the economies of scale achieved by lecturing staff educating and training primary as well as secondary teachers in the same institutions.

It is held that the central administrative and professional control represented in a collegiate university structure would be more economical and efficient for a given level of funding. If the monies currently expended at universities on teacher education were to be made available *via* a collegiate university structure, more students would be trained. This is because, with the full time equivalent student basis of

funding universities, the differential costs of training, say, a medical practitioner, an engineer, an architect and an agriculturalist, as opposed to a teacher, would mean that the university teacher education subsidies are in fact being used to offset costs to train these other more expensive professional persons. It is held that, if the 'full time equivalent' costs for the training of teachers could be available in a collegiate system, fiscal efficiencies would ensue. With alterations in schooling provision, such as reducing differential staff-pupil ratios, it should be possible for sufficient teachers to be produced at an affordable level for the primary schools, as well as a fair percentage of the secondary schooling requirements, without dropping standards inordinately.

It is the contention in this research that the provision of teachers should primarily be a State concern. In certain African countries, the concept of national (community) service to the country at reduced salaries for a specified period, in order to repay the country for the higher education received, is required. Teachers with their bonded loans, which are repaid by service, may be perceived as working on a similar basis to a national social or community service. Salaries are modest in teaching making the comparison valid to some extent.

The above arguments for the State funding of teacher education are based on the economic principle of 'he who benefits should pay'. An attempt has been made to show that society is overwhelmingly the beneficiary of primary, and to

a lesser extent secondary, schooling, as such schooling is a public investment to achieve society's ends. It has also been shown that according to calculations of opportunity costs, teachers have a more modest earning potential and teacher training is a cheaper form of tertiary training, so that private benefits are not of a great magnitude, although a teacher does benefit as an individual from the further education and training.

6.8 RATIONALE FOR STATE EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION

There are other aspects of State expenditure in education which need to be considered. Dollery (1987:25) holds that the economic rationale for intervention in education generally rests on the notion of market failure, where there is a failure to provide goods and services to a sufficient level. In education, market failure can be a justification for government spending on education on the following bases:

(i) Government funding is justified if extensive externalities or spillover effects exist. The positive externalities in primary education and related teacher training, are encapsulated primarily in literacy, numeracy and the good citizen effects specified above.

(ii) Government funding can be used to bring about the required economies of scale by enabling productive units to be established that are sufficiently large. Schooling and teacher education are not part of a competitive marketing system where efficient institutions will grow and thrive,

whilst inefficient institutions go out of business. The State can support a public institution to make it viable and control it to achieve the maximum efficiency possible; and

(iii) Citizens have different capacities for raising loans on private markets. In purchasing a home, such differentials are normal and acceptable. However, inequality in access to educational institutions may result if there is an absence of extensive subsidisation by the government. Lack of equal access at the primary school level would be unacceptable, as the inequalities would merely be perpetuated from generation to generation and the gaps between the 'haves' and the 'have nots' would widen over time.

At the level of higher education, it is in the interests of the country that its gifted and intellectually talented should receive the appropriate education and training. However such students, and their families, may not be able to provide suitable collateral to raise a loan for study purposes. Even if they can, by bonding their home for example, they may not be prepared to do so. There is always uncertainty as to whether their child will be successful in his studies, or realise his potential in his studies and subsequently in his employment, through no fault of his own. For example, a Chinese student who obtained a B.Sc degree was unable to obtain employment in the State agricultural department in South Africa because of the apartheid policy and the political conservatism of the agricultural sector of the economy. He was eventually forced to become an articled

clerk in an accounting firm, which meant that he was unable to repay his university loan for his B Sc studies. A similar set of circumstances could also arise for women students in certain circumstances. So parents may be loathe to risk debt for a contrary return on investment for whatever reason. State funding can reduce the private opportunity costs and expenses making further study viable and achievable.

State subsidisation of education costs has an important social consequence therefore, in that it provides for equality of opportunity which is an important social and political aim. Teacher education is a powerful component of this social aim in that primary and secondary education are an important means for balancing inequalities in life chances, including family wealth. Teachers balance inequalities by educating, and any public finanacial input into teacher training and education has this social benefit effect to commend it.

6.8.1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND SUBSEQUENT EARNINGS

Let us consider in more detail the personal earnings that are associated with educational success at various levels. It is not possible to attribute all the success in earnings purely to the level of education obtained, as earnings may be directly influenced by factors such as one's social class, one's family connections and one's personal natural abilities. Sometimes earnings may be associated with group clout in the market place, such as trade unionism, or a

stringent process for the selection of the members of a profession in order to create an artificial shortage in professional expertise, thereby creating commensurately higher earnings because of a right to deliver a service by a select professional group. These collective powers and work gatekeeping mechanisms may distort the market place. Personal profit does not include a valid measure of factors such as productivity, tradition bound wage structures and the non monetary attractions of a job, which affect any relationships between earnings and the levels of education. With these provisos, it is generally held that earnings are associated with the level of education, at least to some degree.

The Carnegie Commission investigated the poor white problem in South Africa in 1929-1932 and it was found that the greater the proportion of people who received secondary education, the greater the taxable income. The conclusion is clear; a person is likely to be more prosperous if he studies beyond the primary education level. Reynolds (in Nasson 1990:144) confirmed in a recent study that the pressure to complete secondary education is fuelled by the high private, as opposed to social, returns at that level. The return is enhanced, the larger the subsidy received by the State. Hence we find the pressure for parity in matters such as receiving free books by the black population *vis-a-vis* the white population, the white population having received free books since 1969.

A South African study in 1970 (Malherbe 1977:633) considered income *vis-a-vis* educational level and arrived at the following relative earnings figures, in very round numbers:

No schooling	1000
Standard 5	2000
Standard 8	3000
Standard 10	3250
Degree	5500
Masters degree	6000
Doctorate	7500

Table 19 - Income earned *vis-a-vis* level of education

Such figures obviously depend on the criteria used and the assumptions made in the research model, but demonstrate clearly the increased private rate of return associated with a higher level of education.

6.8.2 SOCIAL RATES OF RETURN *VIS-A-VIS* LEVEL OF EDUCATION PROVISION

A United Kingdom study (Crew 1977:13) found the social returns on a first degree to be in the 7-10% range, whilst the social returns for post graduate degrees was found to be zero, if not even negative in effect. This would indicate that the investment at this level of education was too high. The relative social cost ratios have been calculated (Psacharopoulos 1980:15) as follows:

Level of Schooling	Country		
	Developed	Intermediate	Developing
Primary	1	1	1
Secondary	7	7	12
Higher	18	21	88

Table 20 - The relative social cost of education ratios for countries at different stages of development

These figures indicate the increased cost in providing higher levels of education. The cost of higher education in particular is significantly higher. If a country wishes to keep a tight reign on expenditure for education, higher education is obviously the area in which to cut back on fiscal spending. Some persons have argued that higher education brings proportionately higher returns on the investment. This has in fact not been found to be so. Simmonds (1980:56) calculated the 'social benefit to cost' ratio and the following factors emerged:

Primary	9.5
Secondary	2.37
Tertiary	2.00

Table 21 - The social benefit to cost ratio *vis-a-vis* the level of education

Thus not only is higher education very expensive, but the return rate on the investment is meagre.

If economies are going to be effected in higher education, it is possible to bring the private and social rates of return closer together by passing the costs more directly onto the parents. These costs may be borne by the parents *via* a loan scheme, at secondary, or more likely, at the tertiary level. If the parents bear a greater proportion of the costs, private returns may be brought into closer alignment with social returns, but the balance between the two is important. If the parents bear too little of the costs, education becomes too expensive for the State to provide. If the State bears too little of the costs, fewer persons will study further and the State will be deprived of necessary qualified manpower. In decisions on funding, where the returns for the State are not optimal, the question of alternative areas for financial investment become important and relative priorities must be considered.

Resources used represent other opportunites foregone and such factors must be balanced when considering levels of funding.

6.8.3 TEACHER EDUCATION AND THE LEVEL OF FUNDING

The reasons for supporting teacher education substantially, and out of State funds, are not only related to the external benefits achieved by society, but as we have seen it is tied up with the State responsibility to redistribute incomes. If parents are required to pay for their children to become teachers, inequities and social inefficiencies will result,

affecting the calibre of persons who enter teacher training and therefore the quality of teacher provision.

The redistribution of incomes is efficiently accommodated *via* compulsory and universal basic schooling. We have noted in South Africa the high numbers of pupils who drop out of school, who fail, or over two million who never even get to school. In South Africa, as greater numbers of persons become employed in the non-formal sector, a good grounding in literacy, numeracy and the basic skills, including societal skills, becomes very important. Experience has shown that the bulk of those in the informal sector will spend their working lives in various forms of self employment, or in family or small scale businesses, where in-service training is hard to effect. By providing a full complement of teachers in a free basic schooling system that is universal and compulsory, the basis for a more equitable redistribution of incomes is realised (Reynolds in Nasson 1990:145)

The Buthelezi Commission (1982:327) was concerned about the position of taxpayers without children who were in effect subsidising other people's children's education. This is not an inequity, certainly not at the primary school stage, and possibly not at the secondary school level, as such taxpayers will also benefit from the externalities flowing from the education of all the members of society. Perhaps it is best perceived that the education which childless taxpayers have received has resulted in private gains which are taxed and this tax is used to fund the next generation.

Paying for teacher education can therefore be seen as expenditure on public goods wrought from the fruits of universal primary education.

The other group of persons who benefit from universal basic education, are the employers, whether in the private sector or the public sector. In some countries, the private sector has been approached to assist education financially as it benefits directly and indirectly from education. Such private subsidisation may be linked to reduced taxes for donations to education. These tax benefits may be an incentive for private initiative to assist the State in funding education. Such funding could be specific, with engineering firms subsidising technical institutions or businesses sponsoring students studying in their field of business endeavour. Expenditure on teacher education, with the advantages of universal primary education flowing therefrom, may be seen as being of benefit to the State, the employer of teachers, and the private sector, the consumers of the products of primary education, such as literacy and numeracy and similar skills required for employment.

6.8.4 EFFICIENCY IN PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON TEACHER EDUCATION

Another aspect of funding education which must be considered is how to make the system less expensive by making it more efficient. We have already noted that economic efficiency is not the only criterion for decisions about resource allocation, as education is not a purely economic activity.

However, having expended monies, an efficient use of such resources is an important consideration. Psacharopoulos (1980:14) differentiates between internal and external efficiency. *Internal efficiency* is an economic measure of cost effectiveness, simply expressed, say, as a good pass rate in educational institutions. The collegiate system, with its coordinated and corporate management approaches will hopefully improve the internal efficiency of colleges. *External efficiency* is an economic measure of cost/benefit and is represented by employment rates.

Achieving external efficiency in the case of teacher education should be very high, as teacher requirements depend directly on the number of learners (Psacharopoulos 1987:325). The birth rate, modified by statistical measures such as mortality rates, means that the need for teachers can be predicted very accurately. Moreover teaching is a single occupation enterprise, unlike in commerce where qualified persons move into various and disparate fields of employment. Movements in and out of teaching are limited and attrition rates can be based fairly accurately on statistical data from the past. The State is the predominant employer of teachers and it therefore has a virtual monopoly in employment and a virtual monopoly in the training of teachers. In addition, the public authorities control the size of the educational system, as they can control the pupil/teacher ratio. The demand for teachers can therefore be planned and the supply can be planned, both to a relatively high degree of accuracy. Although the quality of

teachers cannot be assessed, in that this depends on those persons who make themselves available for teaching, the quantity of teachers can be optimalised and a high level of external efficiency virtually assured.

The current system of funding teachers-in-training is efficient in another way. A student is given a loan to cover the cost of training. If the student fails to pass, or fails to teach upon the completion of his studies, the loan is repaid, with interest being charged. If the student fails a year, he pays to repeat this year out of his private funds. If the student passes and teaches, the loan is redeemed *via* service on a year for year basis. In effect, the loan becomes a bursary. Admittedly the loan does not represent the full cost of training a teacher, but the system has a measure of efficiency built into it.

As a summary to the above discussion, Psacharopoulos's (1987:423) criteria for judging financial systems for education is appropriate. Three criteria are considered;

(i) There must be an adequate level of funding which may be measured as a percentage of the gross national product or as a percentage of the central government's budget in economic terms. However, other measures may be more revealing, such as the proportion of a relative age group enrolled in primary school, or in the secondary school, or the sex ratio balances. The adult literacy rate is another measure which informs on the state of schooling in any particular country. In these measures as they occur in South Africa, the percentage of the budget devoted to

education is 18% (1990 Income Tax Information Brochure) which is reasonably substantial. However, the proportion of children in primary and secondary schooling and the adult literacy rate show much room for improvement, to which the government has repeatedly committed itself. Problems in these areas include the backlogs occasioned by substantial underprovisioning in the past, as identified by the de Lange Commission, for example.

(ii) The efficient distribution of resources may be measured in terms of cost effectiveness or by calculating the cost/benefit ratio. Cost effectiveness refers to the yield of educational outputs relative to the consumption of real resources by educational institutions. The cost/benefit ratio can be improved either by reducing costs or by improving benefits. In South Africa the negative factors affecting efficiency are the pupil wastage, caused by high failure and drop out rates and having to repeat a standard, and in some areas an instruction process that is too slow and drawn out because of factors within the school or societal factors outside the school, and the underutilisation of expensive physical and human resources because of the apartheid policy; and

(iii) The equitable distribution of resources which may be reflected on a *per capita* basis, or by calculating whether the government is differentially supporting regional educational initiatives in order to balance out differences which would result in inequalities. In South Africa, racial differences have been the basis for an inequitable

distribution of resources on a regional/social basis and on a *per capita* basis, as demonstrated in various recent Commission reports in Southern Africa.

When considering subsidies, Woodhall (1970:16) identifies three distinct aspects which need to be considered. They are the *reasons* for the subsidies, the *level* of subsidy and the *method* of providing the subsidy. We have considered the rationale behind the public subsidisation of education, including the level of subsidy. We will consider in the next section the methods of providing subsidies and critical assess their efficacy and desirability.

6.9 CRITIQUE OF FUNDING METHODS

There are various levels of private and public funding, ranging from full funding to zero funding. If public funding is to occur, it can be carried out in a variety of ways. These concerns will be considered in this section.

Woodhall (in Psacharopoulos 1987:446) has identified the following types of financial aid that can be identified in various countries:

> (i) "Payments to institutions to cover direct costs of tuition, and therefore reduce or eliminate fees to students;
>
> (ii) Unconditional payment to all students in the form of a grant;
>
> (iii) Payments to selected students, in the form of scholarship, grant, or bursary awarded on grounds of academic ability;
>
> (iv) Payments to selected students, in the form of means-tested grants or scholarships, awarded on grounds of financial need;

(v) Repayable loans provided to students from public funds at interest rates below the market rate, or at zero interest;

(vi) Government guarantees for loans provided by banks or other private institutions, and interest subsidies to enable loans to be offered at less than market rates of interest;

(vii) Payments to students for part-time work provided under special employment schemes for students;

(viii) Provision of meals, accommodation, or travel at prices below market prices;

(ix) Tax concessions to students or graduates; and

(x) Tax concessions to students' parents".

If no subsidy is paid and the student, or his family, bears the full cost of his studies, this system is termed the market system. It is predicated on the belief that only a private benefit accrues from studies and the affordability of education can be levelled between persons *via* access to a loan scheme. In terms of teacher education, we have already argued that the social benefits exceed the direct benefits to the individual.

The Robbins Commission (1963:211) expressed doubt about loan schemes as Robbins felt that the connection between higher education and individual earning power can be overstressed and that the social advantages of investing in education may vastly exceed the commercial return. The van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974:394) queried whether students, let alone student teachers, should pay all the tuition costs, if the State financed the capital expenditure, as society benefits from such governmental expenditure. On the other hand it was queried whether the State should pay all the expenses, as *per* a socialist ideal, as the individual's earning capacity

is then enhanced at the expense of society, albeit that society benefits as well.

The economic principle of private benefit accruing directly from education, and being attributable to it in some way, has been challenged (Woodhall 1970:120). A person with a university education may earn more because of his intelligence, motivation, and family and societal connections. We may not be able to ascribe his financial success to educational factors *per se*. It is just as logical to explain the correlation between education and earnings by saying that those who are likely to earn well, are more likely to go to university.

This highlights the dilemma implicit in the benefit principle. Students cannot and should not be made to pay for those aspects of their education which result in benefits that are widely diffused throughout society (Hartman 1971:12). The benefit principle dictates that those who benefit should pay. If the society benefits, the State should pay from public funds. Yet we have seen that such decisions can be complex and contentious. Ideally the State should cover the costs of the public benefit and the individual the costs representing private gains, but this is almost impossible to determine satisfactorily.

With these provisos, let us consider funding mechanisms and fee characteristics in providing higher education, and in particular teacher education.

6.10 VOUCHER SYSTEM

The voucher system of public funding for highter education is consumer oriented rather than supplier (i.e. education institution) oriented. In this system, vouchers are given to students who can use them to fund their higher education. The advantage of the voucher system is its flexibility to meet particular funding ends. Differential funding in order to promote certain courses of studies is easily accomplished *via* a voucher system. Thus a humanities student may receive a lower amount of voucher subsidy and an engineering student a substantial amount, in order to encourage more persons to study engineering and to dissuade students taking courses which are of less public value or are heavily oversubscribed.

Another advantage claimed for the voucher system of subsidisation in higher education is that the educational institutions will have to provide for the needs and preferences of the students in order to attract a sufficient number of students to study at their institution. In addition, there will be a strong compulsion for an institution to provide the service as economically as possible as, with a set voucher value, a student will tend to go to the institution where his voucher will cover more of the costs, given a similar level of standing of the courses on offer at two competing institutions. Obviously such considerations will be tempered by other factors. For example, the universities established to service races other than whites, the so called 'bush colleges' or 'apartheid

universities', tend to be cheaper, whereas the white universities, with longer and more western traditions, are preferred, despite their higher fee structures.

The voucher system would be an anathema in teacher education in South Africa. The above trends of equating white institutions as better institutions would bedevil any supposed advantage arising out of the voucher system. White colleges are generally better staffed (numerically and in terms of better teacher educator qualifications) as well as in terms of physical amenities and equipment. Even with an enormous upgrading of the black colleges, they would not be competitive as they are mostly situated in isolated rural settings. Some aspects of the backlogs in these colleges cannot be wiped out simply by investing funds (even if these funds were available) and the white college imperialism would be unlikely to disappear overnight. A voucher system would merely compound existing problems and create further problems of inequality and alleged differentiation in standards. It is in the essence of this study that the colleges should enter an inclusive, corporate, cooperative and mutually sustaining arrangement. Any competitive element would work contrary to the cooperative principle.

It is similarly held that a graduated system of benefits arising from a voucher system would be counter-productive. Teacher education, along with all education, has been differentially funded and any perpetuation or further institutionalisation of disparate funding is likely to be resented and rejected categorically. Initially at least, it

would be the wealthier colleges that would be able to offer the more expensive technical, scientific and computational courses, because of historical factors, and if such colleges received additional funding because of the vagaries of the voucher system, this would tend to reinforce any disparities.

One advantage of the voucher system is that it enables educational institutions to develop an individual ethos and develop courses according to specific needs, but this may be considered a negative factor in teacher education provision. Politicians are likely to balk at colleges that are independent of direct government control. A teacher education course that is unacceptable to the government is not likely to be tolerated, as teacher education is a social commodity. For example, a highly specific ethnic approach to teacher education may not be acceptable. Apartheid education may be perceived of as an ethnic form of people's education, in that it is culture specific and not universalisable. In Eastern Europe, teacher education based on Marxist principles may no longer be acceptable, given the political changes in that region. A non-democratic (or anti-democratic) based teacher education system is unlikely to find favour in the new South Africa. As government or institutions can err by providing a course that has an unacceptable content or ideological bias, the form of equilibrium most likely to emerge is that of government maintaining at least a nominal control, which may be invoked when and if intervention is deemed necessary, and the

community applying political pressures within a democratic framework.

A voucher system has a further drawback in that an equilibrium in the numbers attending the various educational institutions is likely to be difficult to control and would probably get out of kimber, as the voucher system is inherently highly decentralised in its effect. The desirability of utilising educational plant productively is difficult to equate with a citizen choice voucher system. In principle, in the voucher system, which is free market in orientation, the 'better' institutions are likely to thrive and the others would decline, even to the point of closure. This may be acceptable in business practice, but is contraindicated in providing a service such as teacher education. Instead, the aim should be to optimalise every teacher education institution.

For these reasons, the voucher system is not considered a desirable or feasible mechanism for funding teacher education at this point in the development of the teacher education system. Even a modified mixed voucher, loan and/or grant system for recurrent, as opposed to capital, expenditure is not considered worthwhile.

6.11 GRANTS SYSTEM

The grant system is currently found in financing university education in South Africa. In 1983 a three year university degree cost R30000 per person, of which the State paid R24000 as a grant directly to the university. The student

paid R3000 which is not subsidised by the State, and the balance of the costs were borne by the university (Behr 1983:3). The grant system is considered to have economic drawbacks. Grants are not appreciated, it is felt (Butcher 1972:354), as the student makes no obligation for this funding and takes no responsibility to repay this money if he fails.

Similarly, there is no market compulsion on the part of the university to be economically efficient, as they will get students coming to their university in any event. It is true that universities have been underfunded according to the State subsidy formula, which has meant tight book keeping to hold the student fees down, but these fees are only about 10% of the total cost of university study costs, based on the above figures, and fee increases have been passed onto the students at a rate of 10-20% per year (The Natal Mercury 29 October 1990). There is a tendency for university administrators to be more aware of cost savings, by not reappointing staff in vacant posts for example, than in cost effectiveness measures such as better utilisation of the available physical and manpower resources. One is not as aware of part time/evening classes at some universities, as appears to be the case at the technikons, for example, although the technikon part-time courses appear to be more in line with accommodating its public, rather than as a purely cost effective ploy.

An extreme instance of cost effectiveness is the University of Buckingham in England which offers a traditional three

year degree course in two years in order to effect financial savings, as this university is a private venture and needs to look at profits.

The grant is not considered an effective economic way of assisting students, as it is given on a *per capita* basis, which is inequitable as the rich benefit equally with the poor. This means that the rich student has his opportunity costs reduced, which increases his private benefit at the expense of the taxpayers, many of whom are poor and have had very few advantages in life.

In that the poor student receives an equal amount to the rich student, he does have an opportunity to gain a place in an institution of higher education as a student, so grants do promote access, with no financial risk involved if the poor student fails, as he does not have to repay the grant money to the State. Grants therefore enhance equity in terms of distribution of places in higher education rather than in promoting cost and benefit efficiencies. As the grants are paid out of tax money, the poor and the uneducated taxpayers are in fact subsidising the education, and therefore the education equity, of the privileged few.

6.12 GRANTS *VIS-A-VIS* LOANS

With the drawbacks associated with grants, loans are seen as a preferable manner of funding institutions of higher education, and subsidising students. In the redistribution of costs, grants redistribute monies between categories of persons, whereas loans redistribute the costs over time.

However loans are not necessarily preferable to grants, or *vice versa*, as it depends on the circumstances in an economy and society at the time. Butcher (1972:351) has isolated five issues relevant to the consideration on whether grants or loans are preferable in any given set of circumstances. They are:

(i) the availability of finance for higher education, some loan schemes being less demanding on the fiscus;

(ii) the social and private benefits of higher education prevalent in the society at the time, as high private benefits would be supportive of a loan option;

(iii) the equity and equality of opportunity found in the society at the time, with grants favouring the poor as there is not the same cost risk involved as with a loan;

(iv) the efficiency of university education, as a loan scheme can only function if costs are contained (internal efficiency) and if employment is reasonably assured at the end of the training; and

(v) the political problems in administering the loan scheme.

Let us consider these factors *vis-a-vis* the South African situation.

(i) In South Africa, economists, such as Trotter and Dollery, have favourably considered the loan option, as grants are a very expensive item of State spending in

education. This research has claimed that teacher education funding needs to be considered differently to conventional university funding. Teacher education has a loan scheme, which reverts to a grant providing the student passses and works as a teacher.

(ii) A special case has been pleaded for teacher training as the social benefits of teacher training are high and the private benefits are curtailed because of the nature of the teacher market which is a virtual monopoly. It reflects a State manner of corporate salaries based on hierachical factors, rather than on indices of quality or merit.

(iii) South Africa has a very poor record of equity and equality of opportunity. If teachers had to rely on expensive loans, many would not take up teaching, so a strong grant aid base is necessary in teacher education funding.

(iv) South African universities are not considered to be cheap. South Africa only has a relatively small wealthy elite that can afford university education. The current meagre economic growth rate means that the expensive first world sector of the economy, including very expensive and sophisticated university training and research, is disproportionate to the national means available to support such areas of expenditure to any extent. For example, medical initiatives are still geared to the very expensive heart transplant and kidney dialysis machinery level of

service, in preference to the relative simple and widespread community health welfare approach. The equity efficiency is skewed towards elitism rather than mass provision, and this is reflected in university costs which militate against the poor who are seeking a university education. For teachers, and especially those on a public loan or grant, the assurance of employment is reasonably high, although excellence as a teacher is not individually rewarded. Loans could not be for an excessive amount in what is only a semi-competitive market.

(v) Loan schemes would be very difficult to administer in South Africa. The population is still very rural, with communication problems being prevalent, and the young population is highly mobile. Teacher education is often seen by the indigent population as an affordable education, rather than as a career choice, and white university graduate emigration figures have been excessively high in recent times.

Let us consider the principles and ramifications of loan schemes in some detail.

6.13 LOAN SCHEMES

Loan schemes run in some 15 countries, although variations between the schemes can be considerable. For example, Japan runs its higher education entirely on a loan basis. The prime advantages claimed for loan funding are flexibility and affordability. If persons were required to pay for expensive higher education immediately, only the very

wealthy would be able to afford it. This would discriminate unfairly, as the gap between rich and poor would increase from generation to generation. If teacher education were on a full cost basis, the quality and quantity of recruits would be very adversely affected as only the wealthy would be able to afford such studies. Being rich is no criteria or guarantee of teacher excellence. Full cost funding would be economically inequitable and inefficient.

Loan schemes enable the person to pay for his qualification out of the future profits realised in the form of a salary. Future earnings are thereby mobilised to finance the present investment.

The Robbins Commission in Britain considered loans as a funding mechanism. The advantage of loans was seen as a means of making education affordable, thereby achieving a distributive justice. Loans give opportunity and incentive to the student and engender a sense of responsibility, as success will pay off, whereas failure will result in severe personal costs. Loans achieve an economic efficiency and promote equity up to a point. However, as the very poor may not be prepared to take the risk implicit in a loan scheme, this would make the loan funding mechanism more socially selective. Generally, loans tend to promote social justice, equity and equality of opportunity and the social benefit from such a loan scheme is evident in the quality and quantity of persons it can attract to studying, which is especially advantageous in teacher education, where a loan makes studying to be a teacher possible in many instances.

Loans take care of the major financial constraints and thereby form an inducement for a potential student to invest time in teaching, which results in a social and a private benefit. In effect, by subsidising teachers *via* a system of grants and loans, the State is bearing a portion of the opportunity cost in an effort to ensure a better quality of teacher supply as, with loans, teaching becomes a real career possibility for most persons who would consider teaching as a career.

Loan schemes are considered to be economically advantageous in that they share the cost load of higher education studies between the State and the persons involved. It is considered better to subsidise the person rather than the educational institution, as this makes it possible to bring the fees more in line with the costs and to attain thereby a better equilibrium between private benefits and social benefits. Loans are preferred by some commentators as they generate a higher institutional income from fees as opposed to grants. The Robbins Commission saw this as an advantage in assisting universities to maintain their independence. Recently in Britain, State funding *via* grants has grown, with the result that the State is demanding more say in university matters, to the consternation of the universities. A loan basis of funding would obviate this problem.

Loans are considered a more flexible financial means to effect political policy wishes. For instance, it is possible to vary the level of subsidy relatively easily, over time or between courses. British universities used to be financed on

a quinqennial basis, whereby the finances for a five year period were known in advance. Given the economic changes that can occur over a five year period, this system was ungainly and inefficient. A loan system can be altered with less than a year's notice. However such changes, if precipitous or drastic, could severely affect autonomous tertiary institutions, as long term planning would not be feasible to the same extent, which was the rationale behind the quinqennial grant system. Flexibility is also possible on the loan repayment side. The period of repayment can be altered to accommodate changing or unexpected circumstances, such as marriage, a birth in the family or unemployment, for example. If the need arises, the debt can be written off at any time, or if need be, the interest can be subsidised. Thus loans represent a very efficient and equitable manner of funding and controlling public educational provision.

Loan schemes are considered effective in recovering the cost of higher education. In theory, it is felt that the loan repayments, together with interest charges, should cover the new loan needs in time, thereby representing a significant saving. Any such savings would enable the State to invest the money saved into another area of need. Savings made possible by an autonomous loan scheme could be reallocated to a lower educational level, enhancing efficiency and equity considerations still further. For these reasons it is felt that this method of funding university students would be valuable.

However, loan schemes have drawbacks and do not always live up to the claims made for them. Morris (1982:67) states unequivocally:

> "Loan schemes, whatever the level of subsidy, are unlikely to lead to significant reductions in public expenditure on higher education in the short run".

Atkinson (1983:52) concurs that loan schemes do not appear to offer a satisfactory alternative:

> "A system of loans would not reduce government spending by any substantial amount. It is uncertain whether loans would increase efficiency, though they would probably reduce numbers entering higher education".

These reservations would make loans that are repaid in full unsuitable for achieving a satisfactory provision of teachers.

The Robbins Commission rejected loans as a major means of financing as the government would still have to put up the money initially, so that it would not be cheaper in the short term. If the money is repaid over a number of years, and some schemes are based on a 30 year repayment period, the savings are small, especially if the interest rate is nil, or very nominal. The loan scheme under these circumstances would not be self financing. If the repayment period is short and the interest rates market related, then students could not afford to take the financial risk, especially with a debt hanging over their heads when they are marrying, having children and purchasing and setting up their home. The post higher education qualification period is for most people the time of greatest financial demand coupled with the time of least earnings. Repayment of a loan

is merely an additional burden and may put the opportunity cost, relative to the financial reward, out of reach of students from more modest circumstances and for women students.

In any event, some, including the van Wyk de Vries Commission, have queried the desirability of persons emerging from the process of higher education with a load of debt. Unlike purchasing a house, for example, a higher education is not a commmodity which can be sold if one's financial circumstances change for the worse. If the spectre of indebtedness causes persons, who ordinarily would have been teachers, to balk at coming forward to study, this would amount to a social loss. This problem is of especial concern to women who may find themselves taking into a marrriage a negative dowry. Another group of persons who would be adversely affected are the poor and less than well to do. A loan may represent for such persons a heavy risk premium, especially as the spectre of possible failure could imply, with no reserve finances, a personal financial disaster possibly to the point of bankruptcy, as a debt would have been incurred without one's market value being enhanced. The loan system has been criticised as it is an upper middle class mechanism. Far from equalising opportunities, the loan system could result in injustices, inefficiencies and inequities. Economists do point out, however, that loans are very flexible and the poor can be accommodated by altering the conditions of the loan to suit individual circumstances.

In reality, a loan scheme can be counter-productive. Because students do not wish to have an enormous debt hanging over their heads, they are encouraged to take part-time work to repay their debts in order to finance their own education. This diminishes their academic efficiency and may even lead to failure, thereby protracting their study period and loan indebtedness. With university tuition fees alone at approximately R5000 p.a. and escalating by a substantial percentage each year, for a student entering studies in 1990, the tuition alone for a three year university degree is likely to be in the region of R14000 and the interest, which must be paid even while studying, is R225 per month in the third year. This is on top of living expenses, transport, books and the capital debt. This is a considerable amount of money to find for a student of modest means. Full university costs for a residence student are an estimated R14000 per annum. If the R2700 per annum for interest on a loan for tuition is added, only the wealthy can afford to study at a South African university. These figures are calculated on the University of Natal figures. The only loan scheme for most students in South Africa is run by the commercial banks at prime interest rates.

It is politically difficult to introduce a loan scheme where only commercial schemes have existed before. Taxpayers are likely to perceive that loans are a means of reducing public expenditure, but the mechanisims for running such a scheme are likely to be hotly debated. Will the monies be collected efficiently and at minimal costs? What of default rates?

What collateral can students provide? Will the government underwrite the scheme and guarantee default repayments? Where will the money come from? Do the benefits exceed the costs? Students and their families on the other hand are likely to resent having to pay more to study on a loan scheme as opposed to a grant scheme and they will have fears about the new system.

6.13.1 VARIATIONS IN LOAN SCHEMES

The mechanics of loan schemes need to be considered. Variations in the loan scheme can accommodate some of the problem areas. Loan schemes can vary in their extent and application. Some loans are mortgage type loans with set interest rates for capital outlay calculated over a set period resulting in the fixed monthly payment. A commercial bank loan is worked on this basis. If a separate student Loan Bank is created by the State and run as a non-profit organisation, other systems are possible. Students could be required to pay the full fees, and loans could then be awarded on the basis of a means test. Such a loan could cover tuition, accommodation, clothing and pocket money in cases of dire need, with interest and redemption only commencing upon employment. However the means test approach is also controversial. Why should hard-working, capable and industrious persons have to pay to educate their children, when in some instances another family is poor because of its own inabilities or limitations, such as alcoholic parents or 'won't works'. Genuine reasons for poverty obviously do not come into such a reckoning. Children also resent being

bonded financially to their parents, resulting in a reduced autonomy, because of an economic reality and the resulting dependency. Parents' income and property should not be taken into account when deciding on the awarding of a loan therefore, in the opinion of some (Woodhall 1970:71).

The rate of interest is another variable factor. Daniere (in Hartman 1971:15) feels that the maximum permissible ceiling for repayment is 7.5% of after tax disposable income. Denmark, for example, does not require interest to be repaid on loans, only the capital must be repaid. In Sweden, the repayments are at the current cost equivalent, i.e. the capital is repaid at the inflated rate of value of money. Thus the purchasing power of the money borrowed must be retained. If R100 is borrowed and inflation has increased by 15% in the year, R115 is repaid to redeem the R100 borrowed. The value of this scheme over an interest scheme is that money earned is likely to keep some parity with inflation and there is an implicit compulsion to repay quickly in times of rapid inflation. Also interest compounded on interest is not such a problem, in that it is at least related to the value of the economy, rather than the excessive prime rate related profits charged by commercial institutions such as banks. Detractors of the purchasing power rate of repayment decry the open-endedness of this scheme of repayment. Some economists (Dunworth & Cook in Crew 1977:48) prefer a more complex system for calculating repayments, with a fixed sum base, plus a specific sum *per* person corresponding to fixed costs and variable costs.

A number of loan schemes are related to the ability to pay. Repayments may be made 'income contingent' with the loan repayment being indexed to future income. This loan scheme is predicated on the principle that an investment in oneself should bring a private financial benefit. If it does, the repayments should be proportional to the benefit gained. If the return is meagre, full repayment may not even be required. For example, any monies owing after say, 15 years, would simply be written off. In this way costs and benefits may be redistributed, which is more equitable when viewed from one persepctive. Others may feel that the better investment should not attract additional costs, as a good investment is being penalised thereby.

A similar idea to the income contingent loan, is the graduate tax, whereby persons with degrees bear an extra tax burden because of their enhanced earning opportunity, thus turning government grants for higher education into a quasi loan status. A loan scheme can be similarly tempered by allowing for tax redemption of the monies repaid to redeem study loans, so that the State assists the private individual to redeem his loan indebtedness. Another possibility is to vary repayment rates according to earnings. Under such a scheme, the poor may take 40 years to redeem a loan in full, whilst the wealthy manage to redeem their loans in say 14 years. If the interest rate is high however, a 40 year repayment period could be very costly in interest payments. If no interest is payable however, this scheme is more equitable. Another advantage of this scheme

is that a short repayment period enhances the ability of a loan scheme to become self-financing.

One of the major problems arising out of a loan scheme is the person's ability to repay in times of economic crisis. If unemployment rates are high, a loan scheme becomes inviable. This has occured in some African states, where graduates cannot find employment. In the current temporary teacher situation in the Natal Education Department, where capable and qualified professionals are being put out of employment for admininstrative and ideological reasons, those being appointed in their places are students with government teaching loans; but no such account is taken of student commercial bank loan indebtedness. If two students with loans marry, the indebtedness is high, especially if the woman commences having her family straight away.

An advantage of a loan scheme is the ease of reallocating the loan indebtedness repayment. The Carnegie Commission (in Robbins Book 4 1963:7) has suggested that in the case of a student with a very low income, the interest can be cancelled, albeit temporarily, and a maximum payment can be set, for example 3/4 of 1% of income per year for each $1000 borrowed until the loan is redeemed. If a loan student's income falls below a specified level, or in the case of pregnancy, or national service, the loan repayments can be deferred. Indebtedness could also be cancelled after say 30 years, or at death. For the Robbins Commission (in Butcher, 1972:354) the negative dowry aspect of loans for women was cited as the most frequent practical objection against

loans. Married women are vulnerable to unemployment, what with pregnancies and having to move geographically when their husbands gain employment elsewhere. This is an important consideration in teacher education as teaching is predominantly a female profession.

6.13.2 PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH LOAN SCHEMES

Mingat and Jee-Peng Tan (1986:287) have highlighted the major problems associated with loan schemes as being:

(i) students repeating years which they have failed;

(ii) students dropping out of a course without completing it;

(iii) the periods of grace which have to be accommodated for matters such as army service, pregnancies and unemployment; and

(iv) defaults on payments.

The cumulative effects of these four matters need also to be kept in mind when considering the viability of a loan scheme. Butcher (1972:354) stresses the need to administer a loan scheme equitably and efficiently. Problems he forsees include:

(i) how to treat defaulters;

(ii) the low income occupation persons who battle to pay for their loans;

(iii) the sick or unemployed;

(iv) setting an appropriate rate of interest for the loan;

v) emigrants who leave a country shortly after qualifying and still owe on the loan; and

(vi) salary levels tend to be pushed up so that repaying a loan becomes more affordable.

Hartman (1971:14) stresses the burdensomeness of loans, where students have to carry the substantial costs involved, especially in the family formation years, which results in less persons undertaking such studies to avoid the attendant loan indebtedness.

Some of these problems have not been severe in first world countries. For example, some loan schemes run on an administrative cost figure of between 1% and 2%. Defaulters and immigrants have not proved to be a problem in Scandinavia. However default payments have been very high in America.

Of particular concern in teacher education is Woodhall's (1970:17) contention that it is unwise to create a situation where persons choose a career on the basis of the loan forgiveness factor. Teaching loans at a college of education in Natal for whites amount to R2400 of the estimated private R3000 *per annum* cost, given a considerable additional government sponsorship in the form of an grant which is hidden. The opportunity cost of such education is minimal, especially as loans are redeemed by service, and a loan is

an advantage in gaining employment. A teaching qualification on these terms is very affordable, so that persons not strictly suited to teaching may see this study opportunity as attractive. If on the other hand a person, who really wishes to teach, has to make an effort, amounting to a sacrifice, to become a teacher, this is likely to act effectively to screen the calibre of prospective teachers, but in the process this screen would keep out the capable, but poor, candidates. In reality, the nominal costs of teacher training do not seem to attract the wrong kind of person to teaching in the Natal Education Department, particularly as teacher salaries are widely considered to be disproportionately low. In some segments of the South African community, such problems may well occur.

It is interesting to note that the salaries of primary school teachers in Africa are 6.7 times the *per capita* income. For Asia and Latin America the rate is 2.4 times (Eicher in Hinchliffe 1987:9). In Africa, therefore, the attraction of teaching may well be the financial ease of obtaining a qualification and the excellent returns, rather than a calling, a true vocation, to teach *per se*.

6.13.3 MECHANICS OF LOAN SCHEMES

Let us consider how loans work, in fact, more closely and the mechanisims for administering loan schemes. The control of any loan scheme is an essential element of its efficacy, and the literature shows proponents for each of the options, the government, the commercial bank and specialist agencies,

to run such a scheme. The problems encountered with commercial banks running a loan scheme are the high interest rates and the risk involved because of the lack of collateral security on the part of the student. For government based loan schemes, administrative concerns are a problem. It is interesting to note that, although the literature frequently suggests the Receiver of Revenue as the ideal collection agency, no country in fact uses their Inland Revenue Service (IRS) to collect outstanding student loans (Woodhall 1983:6). If the government acts as the collection agency, the mobility of the young population tends to make keeping track of, and tracing, students a difficult and costly process.

A further consideration is where the capital requirements to run a loan scheme would come from, especially if *mass* higher education, as in America, needs to be funded. The upset costs of a public loan scheme can be considerable. The interest rate to be charged is also crucial to a successful scheme. If too little interest is charged the scheme is uneconomic. If the interest rate is too high, the scheme will not realise its aims of becoming feasible and self-perpetuating. In fact, loan schemes do not tend to become self sufficient in time. The income from interest tends to represent a quarter of the cost of new loans, so the government would need, in a State scheme, to constantly recapitalise the scheme. This is why the advantages of a loan scheme are often queried *vis-a-vis* a grant system.

Psacharopoulos (1987:414) has suggested an alternative scheme whereby tuition tax credits are offered to provide tax relief in order to offset the cost of the tuition fees. This represents a variation on a loan equivalent scheme, in that tax savings can offset private loan costs over time. Such financial support would particularly favour private institutions, as the government would indirectly be funding them. A further variation would be to link the tax incentive to good performance, thereby encouraging scholarship and excellence.

On what basis should loans be awarded, and for defraying which particular costs? Viljoen (in University of Durban-Westville 1987:22) has suggested that merit loans could be awarded, but he does not specify what criteria would establish merit. In South Africa, the prognostication ability of black matriculation results has been found to be minimal. It is held that results could be more of an indication of the school teacher's expertise, than the candidate's inherent ability. It needs to be established who will decide on who will be awarded loans? On what basis will these decisions be made? Who will coordinate loan awards on a national basis? Should the awarding of loans be used as a tool to balance area shortfalls and surpluses? Should some loans be contingent on teaching in a rural area upon qualifying? Should loans be tied to, for example, Education Department demands, citizen demands, merit, or a means test? There is a need to establish such criteria as eligibility on a national basis. The collegiate system for

teacher education would facilitate such a national system, especially if teacher education were controlled by one Department, albeit regionalised.

The extent of the loans needs to be considered as well. Should loans cover tuition and/or maintenance? At present both are covered in the teaching loans and this study proposes that tuition, residence and basic book requirements should be provided for all the teachers in training. For university education in Europe, tuition is generally free and loans are available to cover maintenance costs. In America and Japan, loans are available for tuition costs. Having considered funding from the student perspective, we need to consider financing from the institutional perspective.

6.14 FUNDING OF HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Institutional funding incorporates four cardinal areas *viz.*:

academic (tuition and research);

buildings and grounds;

equipment (for research and teaching); and

residences.

Each of these areas may be funded in a different manner, or in a combination of ways of funding. The van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974:447) felt that State financing should be limited to the minimum functional aspects only. A university could add to this basic minimum if it so wished, including

taking loans from the government (internal) or from the commercial market (external) in order to fund additional requirements. The government would not necessarily have to guarantee the external loans.

The van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974:436) recommended that the State should supply and finance the capital requirements represented by the land and buildings, whilst student fees could go towards financing recurrent expenditure. A concern expressed on the principle of receiving such funds from the central government was that flexibility was affected. As the government naturally wished to control the funding process, the university required permission from the Department of Education and the Treasury, including the submission of plans if physical plant was involved. It was found that the long time lags involved were detrimental, especially as any alterations or amendments required by the government tended to be of little consequence. Yet sometimes the delay could mean that a facility would not be purchased. If land was involved, a seller would seldom wait for a couple of months while the laborious process of negotiations was conducted. If the raising of a private loan was involved, financial problems occurred as the loan institutions could not hold an offer of finances open for any protracted period of time. If the universities were treated as autonomous instititutions and permitted latitude to act independently and responsibly, a better system would be for the State simply to underwrite the loans, working in trust with the university involved.

6.14.1 CONTROL OF FUNDING

The concern of the State in matters of control is whether its finances will be expended judiciously and economically. If the State simply provided loans for buildings, there would be little incentive to seek a better utilisation of buildings and to effect economies in building usage. If a university has to pay its own costs, it would then be more aware of, and concerned about, the real costs involved. One mechanism for achieving this is to make the university pay for the interest on the loan and building depreciation charges (Butcher 1972:351). A further concern was that if the State paid for the buildings, the university may build luxurious buildings instead of functional buildings. This is possible if the universities have a high level of functional autonomy, as occurred under the University Grants Commission in Britain. The State needs to protect its monies. These concerns, extrapolated into South African college terms, could be met easily *via* a collegiate management arrangement. The central body could control the building programmes and expenditure, based on a collective knowledge and experience. Instead of each individual college liaising directly with the government Treasury and the Education Department, the collegiate structure could act as an agent of the college, the Treasury and the Deparment, in short and long term planning, financing and screening proposed projects and programmes of a capital nature.

6.14.2 FUNDING OF RESIDENTIAL ACCOMMODATION

The provision of residences occupies a specific place in teacher education. A passage from the van Wyk de Vries Commission report (1974:455) encapsulates the desirability of residential colleges, especially when applied to teacher training:

> "...a residential university offers certain educational advantages covering a wider field than a merely training and examining university. There is a formative influence in the association of students living in the same atmosphere which cannot be obtained from books...The knowledge of human character gained in such a community, the bonds of friendship which are formed, and the character building arising therefore usually have a permanent value".

If this is true for university students, how much more is it not apposite for teachers training for a profession that functions on an interpersonal basis?

The van Wyk de Vries Commission felt that it is not the function of the State to provide board and lodging for students, but felt that the State should "...support financially the educational advantages created by residence in student hostels". Furthermore, with such support, the State would be supporting those students from outlying areas where no day colleges exist. In this way the State would assist these students by providing residence facilities, as parents in outlying areas would have to sacrifice more to send their children to college. However, the residences should be considered as separate economic entities and the residence fees should be calculated to cover maintenance

costs together with any interest and redemption charges associated with residence provision.

A case could be made for most, if not all, teachers in training to reside on the college campus. The personal interaction is essential to the training of a teacher, as this is the essence of teaching. One has to learn good interpersonal skills to interact as a teacher with pupils, colleagues, parents and members of the community. Rubbing shoulders with a variety of people is central to a teacher's professional socialisation. Much can also be learned from peers who are working towards a common end. Ideas are likely to be interchanged and skills may be developed which are useful in teaching, from playing and coaching sport, to hobbies and cultural pursuits. The development of the 'person in community', typical of the traditional British universities such as Oxford, is an ideal for teacher training institutions as well.

6.14.3 FUNDING AND FEE LEVELS

Setting the rate of fees to be paid is a tricky decision. The general approach appears to be to keep the fees down to a reasonable level so that they do not act as a disincentive. Certainly in teacher education, working on a supply and demand basis would not ensure that the best teachers are recruited and in sufficient numbers. Persons of independent means do not necessarily make the best teachers, and salaries are not a real incentive for persons to embark on an expensive course of training to be a teacher. For

universities, the van Wyk de Vries and the Robbins Commissions suggested that fees should be set at 20% of the current institutional expenditure. The Boyey Commission in Canada (1984) recommended that university tuition fees should be 25% of the system basic operating income. The Nova Scotian Commission (1985) in Canada recommended that the fees should be 50% of the instructional costs, which would be far less than the full operating costs.

Not only has the appeal been made in this work for costs to be more heavily subsidised for teacher training, but if the collegiate system is instituted, it is foreseen that any percentage cost would be lower than comparable university costs, as universities are more expensive institutions to run. The Robbins Commission in 1962/3 in Britain calculated the cost *per* student to be £660 for a university student and £255 for a student at a college of education. These figures suggest that it costs about 2.6 times as much money to train a university student as compared to a college of education student, given the circumstances particular at the time of the study. In any event, the van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974:388) felt that it is in the interests of the country that fees should remain relatively low. However, it was also felt to be a sound principle that students should bear part of the teaching costs of their education, with bursaries and loans for those without the finances.

A particular problem exists in setting fees at colleges of education in South Africa. Should fees be the same at all the colleges or should they vary according to the local

college circumstances? If they vary, should the loan amounts vary in unison with the increased costs? Differential funding has been a problem in college financing in the past and any differences are likely to be met with suspicion. Yet a nationally set fee would hinder colleges in wealthier areas from raising more fees by charging more, to accomplish a better service. But this would be seen as elitism and be resented in other quarters. On the other hand, to fund the poorer colleges at a substantially increased rate would also create political tensions, even if the outcome of such differential funding is equitable and just in the circumstances. The problem is not to be seen to be unduly favouring or prejudicing any particular institution, in spite of past injustices. Yet equity cannot be attained by financing all the colleges equally. The solution may be to set a national tuition fee and a national loan fee and allow controlled variations in the registration fee. In addition, backlogs would be differentially funded.

The possibility of some kind of pooling system to counteract regional differences could also be investigated. Perhaps fees could be paid on a differential basis, with a portion of the fees being accumulated centrally for specified projects or programmes. Pooled funds usually incorporate a formula based on a system of common funding (based on unit costs) and further funding (based on past expenditures). Such concerns bring us to the point of considering the role of a collegiate body *vis-a-vis* funding.

6.15 CORPORATE FUNDING MECHANISMS

Resource allocation is a complex process. Morris (1982:124) describes it thus:

> "(it)...has to meet many potentially conflicting criteria such as accountability, fairness, cost effectiveness, political acceptability, cheapness and the assignment of responsible decision making...The allocation of responsibiity is a matter of deciding who is best able to formulate problems and who to propose solutions".

The problem with financing in education is that it can be too close to the political process for its own best interests. The Indian University Commission (1949:408) holds that:

> "The experience of other countries has proved the need for this separation, between the political body which determines policy and sets financial limits for its execution, and the expert body which alone has the necessary knowledge of detail to carry out the policy wisely, fairly and economically".

This ideal is held for the collegiate model. It is not that the government should have a reduced say, but that it should have a principled say and the implementation of the policy principles in practice should be a matter for those with the expertise. The Indian University Commission elucidates further:

> "In a democratic country, the decision of how much public money can be spent by universities can be made, and ought to be made, only by the government; it is a political decision and part of their yearly budget proposals. But once that decision has been made, the detailed allocation of the money must be left to an expert body, not merely non-political, but as rigidly protected from political or personal lobbying and pressure as the constitution of the country can make them".

This kind of philosophy has been instituted in the University Grants Commission (UGC) in various countries, notably in Britain, and a National Advisory Board for Local Authority in Higher Education (NAB), which is the equivalent body for the public sector tertiary institutions, especially the polytechnics in England.

The UGC was established out of a need to insulate the universities from the hot and cold winds of politics (Eustace 1984:601). Its role is to act as a go-between, or a broker, between the universities and the government. It is a national agency with the responsibility to reconcile the principles of university autonomy with the principles of national planning and accountability for public funds. The formation of the UGC was particularly British because the universities in Britain are not part of a department of state. Each university is a private corporate body.

The UGC is the instrument for the overall review of the university system. Similarly NAB was created because of the perceived need for a national body to advise the government on the total resources to be allocated to further education and to be responsible for the effective allocation of national funds. The Robbins Commission (1963:239) saw the UGC as "...a committee independent of politics and not subject to ministerial direction, yet maintaining a close contact with government...", in order to advise on the amounts of money needed and to distribute the funds which are made available. This system gave a measure of autonomy, whilst providing for corporate wisdom. The UGC is an

"instrument of influence" (Westoby 1979:36). It has the powers of approval, but not the powers of proposal. In this way the institutional autonomy is protected. This autonomy is also protected in the composition of Commission members:

> "The distinctive feature of the UGC model is the heavy reliance on the role of academics in the decision-making process and the clear separation of *de facto*, if not *de jure*, powers between the government and the UGC" (Berdahl & Shattock 1984:469).

The fundamental principle of a UGC concept is that each university should be left to manage its own affairs with the minimum of detailed directions. Eustace (1984:610) comments that:

> "Autonomy seems to depend for its strength on the inherent ability of great corporations to intervene on their own behalf".

The Indian Commission (1949:408) felt that the UGC should be an expert body and that it should have the power to allocate grants within the total limits set by the government, instead of merely recommending on the financial allocation to the Finance Ministry. In Australia, the UGC equivalent was required to function as follows:

> "...inquire into and advise the Minister on the necessity for, and conditions of, financial assistance for tertiary education institutions...and to advise the Minister and perform administrative functions in respect to programmes of financial assistance" (Harman 1984:511).

The object of such autonomy was to limit and curtail it in acceptable ways so that it was not placed above the power of parliamentary sovereignty, yet not rejected by it.

The UGC was to be accepted as a source of expert advice on university affairs and a means of planning university development. This obviously entails a need for communicating regularly with the universities, thereby realising a cross-pollination of ideas and perspectives. To accomplish this, the UGC has visitorial rights built into its charter. Such visitation occurs on a regular basis in connection with the continuing needs of the universities, and their new needs and proposals attached thereto, as well as any special needs that may arise. In this manner, a wealth of experience is built up. In order to achieve a good working relationship with the universities, friendly, informal and frequent discussions are held which form the basis of cooperation.

From this mutual understanding, policies are formulated and, after liaison with the government, the policies are executed. There is a need for such collaborative discussions on budgets in order to achieve the prime aim of the UGC, which is the funding of the universities. In this process, university plans are adapted, coordinated and reconciled. The individual institutions present their carefully articulated requests for funding. Ultimately the UGC is responsible for distributing the funds as, although the government funds the sector, no individual institutional details are negotiated with the government - that is the terrain of the UGC. *Via* mutual discussions, the universities are assisted in their institutional development and they are apprised of the national needs, as interpreted by the UGC. The institutions form this academic collegiality and make it

work on the premise that "...judgement by peers is preferable to interference by politicians" (Blishen 1969:802).

Financial control is central to the UGC concept. Clear and detailed financial regulations are wrought and expenditure is on a budget basis only, although in NAB there is the right to carry over money from any savings approved because of effective management. The budgeting process allows the UGC to achieve financial stringency. The UGC could be used to negotiate the reduction of expenses through the rationalisation of courses and resources, as it has the overall picture and the necessary contact with the institutions, although this is not in fact entirely how it functioned in Britain. Standardisation is possible and expenditure can be trimmed to the essentials, given the nature of an UGC type body. To some extent, such a system can "audit" the unproductive use of physical and manpower resources. In a collegiate system, where the liaison is both financial and academic, the possibilities for effective management are greater, without the government directly undermining institutional autonomy.

It is obvious from the points raised thus far in connection with the functioning of the UGC, that the composition of the Commission is important, if it is to liaise successfully with both the government and the universities. As the Commission may have to take unpopular decisions and convey controversial perspectives to the government or the individual universites, the Commission members must be

persons of standing. Because of their position of having to interface with political persons and bodies, in order to save them from indulging in the vagaries of political influence and consequent unfortunate manipulation, the position of the Commission members needs to be entrenched and secure.

It is the recommendation of this study that the collegiate corporality of colleges of education should function along the lines of the UGC, but with a wider representation and a closer association with the Department of Education, as the colleges would fall under such a Department in the collegiate model, unlike the universities in Britain. However the collegiate executive, which will have to deal with the government, including politicians and political groupings, and at times have to stand up to them, need to have security of tenure in their positions. The template for such an entrenchment of office and right is found in the establishment of the South African Commission for Administration. The Commission for Administration Act, 1984 (Act 65 of 1984) specifies in section 4(1)(a) that "...the State President may remove a member of the Commission from office..." on specified grounds and specifies that (in section 4(1)(c):

> "The removal of a member of the Commission from office in terms of this subsection and the reasons therefore shall be communicated by message to Parliament within 14 days after such removal or, if Parliament is not then in session, within 14 days after the commencement

of its next ensuing session".

Similar guarantees should ensure the viability of the Collegium, when interacting with government officials and public office bearers.

6.15.1 UGC MODEL

In Britain, the UGC is not a statutory body. The members of the Commission are appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, providing that these members are acceptable to the universities. The members are not civil servants and they serve in their individual capacities. The chairman is a full time appointee, whilst the other members are part time commisioners. They serve a five year term, which may be extended, and they are predominantly academics who are appointed. The commissioners devote approximately 20% of their time to commission duties, which ensures an ongoing contact with the universities, so essential to their role. The Commission is supported by a Secretariat, consisting of civil servants, and by a system of advisory sub-committees of experts appointed by the main committee. The Superintendent Generals of Education and of finance also serve on the Commission.

The Commission conveys the financial needs of the university sector to the government, in the form of the Secretary of State, and such reports are confidential. The needs are discussed *en masse* for the university phase. Arising from these discussions, the government awards a block grant to fund all the universities. If the sum received is less than

the sum requested, the UGC decides on how to apportion the monies. A similar scheme applies for funding buildings (Blishen 1969:801). In addition the UGC is available for consultation and to give advice, but this is given only if it is requested.

In New Zealand the UGC is chaired by a person appointed by the Governor General on the advice of the Minister of Education and the universities. Four lay persons and three professors also serve on the Commission.

In Australia, the UGC conducts important regulatory and administrative tasks for all three tertiary phases. The so called Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission (CTEC) is constituted from three prior bodies *viz.* the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) Council, the Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE) Council and the Australian Universities Commission (AUC) Council. The CTEC is a collaborative and cooperative body, a coordinating agency responsible for all sectors of tertiary education in Australia. It arose from the Murray Committee recommendation for a national approach to university planning, with the aim of reconciling government interests with university interests (Harman 1984:503). The aim was a more efficient planning system for tertiary education. The Commission consists of three Councils (university, advanced college education, and technical and further education) in line with ts coordinating responsibilities across the three sectors of tertiary education. The CTEC has the final responsibility for financial recommendations for the tertiary sector.

However, each Council is responsible for advice and consultation appropriate to its specific sector. The Commission consists of a full time chairman and three full time commissioners, who chair each of the Councils, as well as five part time commissioners. Each Council consists of a chairman and eight part time members, with professional and lay members being represented on a 50:50 basis.

The National Advisory Board for Local Authority Higher Education (NAB) in Britain is a similar body to the UGC concept, but it differs in function because it deals with the non-university public sector and it has a strong local body orientation, in line with the regional approach to funding and administration in Britain. The NAB arose out of the Oakes Committee Report in 1978 which suggested the need for:

- a national body to collect, analyse and present information on demand for higher further education;
- to advise on the total provision which should be made for higher further education;
- to give guidance on programmes;
- to generate financial estimates of institutions;
- to allocate funds for recurrent expenditure;
- to advise on capital allocation; and
- to oversee the development and cost effectiveness of higher further education (Pittendrigh 1986:69).

NAB is charged with advising the Secretary of State on:

- the academic provisions to be made in higher education institutions;

- to allocate resources for capital expenditure;

- to monitor the implementation of resources so allocated; and

- to coordinate the educational provision between the different sectors of higher education.

Not only does NAB advise on the total resources, but on the allocation of resources between the various local authorities and institutions. As such, NAB is a body that exercises considerable authority. However, important limits have been placed on the powers exercised by NAB, in that a large measure of responsibility and initiative exists at the local level. NAB may neither require, nor forbid, an institution or an authority to make a certain provision or to incur a specific expenditure. The Oakes Report refers to a "... national service locally administered" (Fowler 1979:71). NAB is responsible for allocating funds and overseeing their effective use at the national level.

The local approach adopted by NAB is evident down to the point of the individual rector, or even members of staff in some instances. The object is to provide an incentive for prudent management and to foster initiative and responsibility. This allows maximum freedom for institutions to manage their own affairs, to the greatest

practicable degree, and allows for operational freedom within the limits set. Purchases and contracts are, for example, locally administered. But the ultimate responsibility for all expenditure incurred is carried by NAB. There is a provision that if the maintaining body fails to fulfil its responsibilities, NAB can dissolve the local governing bodies pending the establishment of a new governing body.

6.15.2 CRITIQUE OF THE UGC CONCEPT

The UGC concept does have drawbacks and disadvantages associated with it. For example, the polytechnics in Britain prefer to be under direct government control, as the government department, because it is more directly involved, is likely to have a more sympathetic approach to problems encountered by the individual institutions. The polytechnics prefer the direct grant system as they are consulted about decisions, they know the limits and can speak to the relevant official (Holmes 1971:172).

In the Australian experience, tensions were noted within the CTEC, for example between the Commission and the three Councils, when, for example, financial and policy recommendations of a Council are altered or overruled by the Commission. To ameliorate this problem, a mechanism exists whereby each Council has the right to provide advice directly to the Minister. Problems were found outside of the divided loyalty syndrome, in maintaining a measure of real institutional independence whilst maintaining workable

relations with the responsible Minister. Tensions also exist between the individual institutions and their Council, or the Commission. Tensions will always occur in any competitive, yet corporate, endeavour. The pros and cons of each type of system need to be finely assessed.

Concern has also been expressed about the lack of public accountability in the UGC system, where universities were not politically answerable for their administration, except in a very oblique way (Williams 1988:60). The external monitoring of expenditure was resisted by the universities, yet the government was keen to scrutinise expenditure and receive reports thereon. Treasury scrutiny was not considered sufficient; the Department of Education and Science was keen to conduct a detailed audit to establish the acceptability of the use of public funds.

The collegiate system being proposed in this work is not intended to vaunt institutional autonomy in the face of parliamentary sovereignty. Rather, the accountability and auditing will be integral to the collegiate structure and promote an individual institutional accountability as well as a corporate accountability.

Variations have been suggested in the funding of higher education. In Britain, some feel that the UGC and NAB should combine to form a new UGC covering the full range of higher education provision (Shattock 1984:495). A National Higher Education Commission concept was articulated by the Robbins Commission in the 1960's. Some feel that all funding should

be left to a governmental department. Others feel that a National Council, with a representative from each of the universities, to avoid partisanship and parochial concerns in funding decisions, would be a better body than a body represented by the government. The collegiate college system would incorporate aspects of all these suggestions. It would be linked to a Higher Education Commission, be representative of all the teacher education institutions, albeit in a regional /central arrangement, and would have closer links with the unitary education department.

6.16 COLLEGIALITY AS A FUNDING MECHANISM FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

The primary advantage of a collegiate type system with UGC overtones is the opportunity it provides for planning and coordination on a national basis. In the current 'own affairs' system of financing and administration of education in South Africa, there is no centralised body with an overview of the broad picture in education. A collegiate system of college administration, falling under the aegis of a single Department of Education would obviate this problem and provide a basis for a more efficient and effective administration of education. Such proposals could be based on the cumulative experience of bodies such as UGC, NAB and CTEC as enunciated above. In 1991 in particular, dramatic cutbacks in teacher numbers in the Natal Education Department are being envisaged (some 2000 out of the 6000 teachers within a period of three years), yet there is an estimated shortage of some 24000 teachers in the KwaZulu

Education Department in the same geographical region. The need for a central unitary organisational arrangement is evident.

A collegiate administrative structure could act as a broker between the government and the individual colleges. If it is given statutory status to act as an autonomous advisory body, it could act as both (i) a coordinating body and a buffer between individual colleges, and (ii) between colleges as a corporate group and the government. As a body outside the direct machinery of government, it would be required to advise expertly and impartially on colleges in a broad context. In effect, it would be the point where all short term and long term planning would be collated, coordinated and controlled. It would constitute national planning, based on consultation, and its strength would be in its ability to articulate and communicate its recommendations on broad strategies for development and change. There is a need to coordinate the priorities for the development of the collegiate teacher education sector. Shattock (1984:477) suggests that the sum of local aspirations may not form a sensible overall picture for a system of educational administration. Referring to universities in Britain, he quotes the 1968 UGC report:

> "It no longer makes sense, if it ever did, that each university should seek to develop its own range of offerings with no regard to the intentions and practices of sister universities. Increasingly there has been recognised the need for at least the outline of a central strategy..."

It is envisaged that a collegiate structure would work in close cooperation with the government and assist in the formulation of State policies for the college sector of higher education. It would advise the government on college opinion and, in turn, become the chief means of carrying out the broad policy laid down by the government. As such it would be involved in national planning and resource allocation. It would thus form a link between the thinking of the government and the colleges, in both directions.

In the collegiate model, a collegiate management structure would also act as a monitoring unit. It would be a central source of guidance and control. Similarly, it would be a source of collective wisdom and could promote inter-institutional cooperation and collaboration.

In terms of planning, a collegiate structure would provide a long term planning facility regarding policy and finance. Because of its ability to collate relevant information on a national basis, it would be in a good position to plan future facilities according to emerging trends. Projections, and the determination of demand, would be undertaken at a national level and the duplication of facilities would be avoided.

The mechanisms for the establishment of a Collegium are obviously crucial. One of the perceived drawbacks of the UGC system in Britain was the lack of governmental control. This was remedied in the establishment of NAB, the sister body to the UGC which controlled the non-university higher and

further education sector, in that the government has a more direct say. In fact, merit was seen in closer liaison with the government as it was felt that this closer relationship engendered more sympathy with the problems being encountered by the educational institutions (Shattock 1984:485). In South Africa, the Holloway Commission in 1951 (Van Vuuren 1988:522) recommended the establishment of a UGC, but this was rejected as the government wished to be in charge of matters. The collegiate model being proposed does not exclude governmental input and control, as government officers would be an integral part of the structure.

6.17 COLLEGIATE BODY WITHIN NATIONAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURES

It is envisaged that a single Department of National Education will consist of three Commissions *viz*:

Commission for Schooling

Commission for Higher Education (Universities, Technikons and Colleges)

Commission for Post Secondary Education.

This would ensure a central and unified vision of education, including the control of policy and financing of education.

The Commission for Higher Education would consist of three Boards of equal stature acting independently, for each of the sectors i.e. universities, technikons and colleges. The Collegium (the college board) would be responsible for the

administration of colleges of education, including the finances and academic/professional endeavours of colleges.

Each college would have a college council consisting of academic, professional, financial and community representatives. Each Council would appoint representatives to Regional College Boards. These Regional Boards would send representatives to the Collegium committees, one of which would handle financial matters. The Collegium would consist of full time departmental administrators, full time seconded or promoted *ex* college management or academic/professional pesonnel, and elected representatives from the organised teaching profession, the community and business persons. In terms of finances, the Collegium would gather information and make proposals to the Minister of National Education and the Treasury. Once monies have been allotted, it would be the responsibility of the Collegium to implement the financial programmes.

In this way, it can be seen that the government would retain ultimate control (unlike in the UGC concept), but the Collegium would approximate certain features akin to a 'national system locally administered'. Dekker and van Schalkwyk (1989:15) hold that the financing of education is an important aspect of the management of education systems, and by controlling the finances, the government would ultimately retain control. The government would also interact with the Collegium and its constituent committees and thus bring its influence to bear in this way as well. The Collegium system represents a good compromise position

between governmental authority and local (collegiate) autonomy.

Some may feel that the collegiate sector is not a substantial enough sector to warrant separate administrative treatment in terms of a Collegium and that they should be lumped together with the university and the technikon sector for administration purposes. In response to such a suggestion, it needs to be asserted that colleges of education would benefit greatly by functioning exclusively to some extent and in a corporate way. Past experience has indicated that, when colleges are required to interact with universities (and technikons), especially on a competitive basis (for finances, for example), they tend to be overshadowed and relegated to a minority position. In addition to these considerations, the number of students at colleges is significant. De Lange (Book 4, 1980:18) quotes the figures as being 34742 students at colleges of education, whilst the residential universities had 93015. Included in these university numbers are teachers in training. It is the contention in this thesis that all teacher training should occur in colleges of education, so the difference between these numbers will be further reduced.

6.18 COLLEGIUM AND THE RATIONALISATION OF EDUCATION PROVISION

It is noted that the rationalisation of the university sector is currently being considered by the governmental

Educational Renewal Strategy (ERS) Committees. For example, two pharmacy faculties at separate universities in Durban have been amalgamated and located at one university. There has been public speculation in the press that, because the number of law faculties in South African universities is excessive, with four such faculties in the Natal region alone, amalgamations may be enforced to effect economies.

Rationalisation in the subject discipline of Education could consist of moving all teacher training into colleges of education. Colleges would primarily become monotechnic teacher training institutions awarding their own degrees and diplomas *via* a collegiate accrediting body. This does not preclude involvement on a broader basis in adult education, literacy training and a community college type of involvement. Highly streamlined education faculties would be retained at a number of select universities, as academic education departments for an undergraduate major subject in Arts, Humanities and Social Science faculties, as well as post graduate degree study programmes. The then Minister of National Education, Dr G van N Viljoen, in 1987 (University of Durban-Westville 1987) pointed out that 20% of South Africa's total expenditure on education goes on tertiary institutions, to be spent on the 5% of persons who enrol there. Given figures of this order, the rationalisation of universities and technikons on economic grounds makes much more sense that the current rationalisation of white colleges on the politico-ideological grounds of 'own

affairs' education departments with their attendant funding problems.

There must be universities, but their place in the education system needs to be reviewed *vis-a-vis* basic schooling and the costs involved. The current shortage of qualified teachers, the high primary school dropout rate (up to half of black pupils in certain areas drop out of school after a year of schooling) and the school non-attendance rates are imperatives which should place university education in this country in a new perspective when it comes to funding and rationalisation.

6.18.1 UNIVERSITIES AND RATIONALISATION

It would be useful to subsidise universities on the basis of outputs, with the consequent efficiency enhancing effects, but outputs bedevil measurement in any meaningful way. The current system of subsidising universities on inputs is disadvantageous and it discourages thrift and efficiency. Governmental moves to fund on factors such as pass rates are not an entirely satisfactory solution.

With approximately 6 per 1000 of population attending universities in Britain and Germany for example, the South African figure for whites of approximately 32 per 1000 attending university is unrealistic. This is compounded by the paucity of schooling, in the black population in particular, and factors such as the adult illiteracy rates in general. The moves by the liberal universities to change their student population dynamics to approximate those found

in the general population are laudable, but they do not address the relative oversupply of university trained persons in the predominantly third world South Africa, nor do they address the problem of too many relatively small universities vying for student numbers and growth to become economically viable. The government clamp down on uninhibited growth in the size of universities, and its severe curtailment of the funds being made available to universities, are cosmetic and do not come to terms with the radical restructuring of the university sector which is required in South Africa. This problem, of excessive university numbers, has as one of its root causes the apartheid policy of "...to each his own equivalent, yet separate, educational institutions..." which spawned a plethora on universities on political, rather than on educational or economic grounds.

Moser (1988:15) has pointed out that decisions on the numbers and costs of higher education are a mixture of investment criteria, political judgement and national values. This makes radical restructuring of higher education a difficult task. Other countries have also had to make adaptations however and close or amalgamate tertiary institutions, and these experiences could provide templates for possible similar courses of action in South Africa. Some universities could be teaching universities only, as in America. The idea of limiting some universities, or faculties within a university, to teaching only in terms of the funding that they can raise, and with a privatisation of

research efforts at these universities, or in these faculties, could be considered. There is a correlation between research efforts and good university teaching at one level, but the nature and degree of the research efforts could be subject to negotiation. If research at universities were funded *via* a separate budget, financial control would be facilitated. In 1985 (Viljoen in University of Durban-Westville 1987) R700 *per capita* was spent on secondary education and R4250 *per capita* was spent on tertiary education. Although such a cost differential is expected, whether it should be of the order in excess of 6 times as much, must bear careful scrutiny.

6.18.2 RATIONALISATION AND EQUITY CONSIDERATIONS

Behr (1984:312) holds that the provision of education of equal quality for all requires as a necessary condition "... parity in some way or other in the level of financing as between different individuals irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex..." The essence of the rationalisation initiatives is that the level of education should be added as a factor to the list of fair treatment. It is not being suggested that a class i child should be funded at the same *per capita* rate as a university student, but that each should be funded proportionately and fairly as is their due, and one level should not be funded at the expense of another level. Furthermore, it is contended that primary education is a right, whereas university education is a privilege, especially full time residential university education. South Africa is fortunate to have a correspondence

university of international status as an alternative means of acquiring a graduate education. The plea is not to emasculate university education and funding, but rather to set realistic norms for funding all scholars on a just and evenhanded basis, within the constraints of the economy and the commitment to other pressing national needs. The norms which are established should provide for a functionally adequate quality of education not only at the primary level, but at the secondary and tertiary level as well. The quality of all education must be underwritten by what is financially feasible and realistic in fiscal terms.

Related to the suggestions for funding education above, no consideration of the South African teacher education funding parameters can avoid some consideration of deficit funding. Williams (1988:6) refers to 'deficiency grants' which may be utilised to make good deficits in times of financial difficulties and expansion in Britain. Malherbe (1954:542-554) proposed the concept of a development account for the maintenance, development and improvement of educational facilities, especially to fund deficits in black education. He held (1977:536) that central funding was necessary to ensure a good education to all citizens, as partial State funding would favour the richer communities.

In white teacher training, funds are disbursed from the State Revenue Fund to provincial budgets and college teacher training is virtually free, with significant grants, student loans and a loan text book and setwork book scheme. The loans are repaid in service. It is the contention of the

writer that this scheme should continue in principle, and be expanded to include all teacher training in South Africa, as teacher training falls under the aegis of primary and secondary education more accurately, from an economic perspective, than it falls under the rubric of tertiary education, and it should be treated as such from a public funding perspective. At the same time, from an academic and professional perspective, colleges of education fall under higher education.

6.19 DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE THROUGH EDUCATION

South Africa has features of both a first world and a third world country. Overall it may be perceived of as a third world country with first world pretensions. This is typical of a developing country. As such, any consideration of the provision of education needs to take account of the third world realities and the first world aspirations implicit in the South African society. These realities and aspirations are evident in the literature, including the official commission reports, especially from the late 1970's onwards, when the Soweto riots refocused attention on education and on the South African society. The need for change and development *via* education has been evident in all the sub-Saharan African countries, especially after independence.

The impetus for development and change comes primarily from two quarters. From an economic perspective, big business, industry and certain areas of government, have stressed the

need for change in education to accommodate manpower needs and the attainment of economic development and growth. From an ideological perspective, political and humanitarian initiatives have stressed the need for change primarily in terms of equality of opportunity, justice and human rights. Education is perceived as a means to counteract the past excesses and the unfairness of apartheid policies.

One of the primary impetuses of the de Lange Commission was the perceived economic and manpower needs and the realisation that education had to change in order to provide society with its human and economically productive resources. Similarly, the progressive education movement, a loose socio-political massing of agencies for change, is representative of a grassroots political thrust for changes in educational provision. Philosophies such as people's education, associated with conscientisation and personal empowerment, have similarly called for a radical revision of educational content and provision. One of the strong calls for change in education has been in terms of 'development'. This term needs to be considered as it relates to teacher education.

Development is a complex and imprecise term. Mosha (1986: 114) sees development as a desire to transform societies and economies into modern ones. Traditional societies are perceived to be underdeveloped and modernity is associated with development. Development has been associated with new nations emerging as a result of the decay of empires (Niven 1972:29) and South Africa is in a state of transition with

the political demise of the apartheid ideology. In the process of development, the modern western states are often held up as ideals. Almond and Powell (in Massialus 1969:7) hold that:

> "Development results when the existing structure and culture of the political system is unable to cope with the problem of challenge which confronts it without structural differentiation and cultural secularization".

Development should not be perceived purely in economic deficit terms. Underdevelopment cannot merely be equated with poverty. Classic theories, holding that an underdeveloped country is merely lagging behind in a preordained pattern of evolution, have been debunked (Unesco 1977:88). Development is seen as a complex and comprehensive multi-relational process involving all the aspects of the life of a community, including its self awareness and its relations with other countries. Economic growth, though an essential component of development, must be accompanied by political and social development, including cultural factors, as well as scientific and technological indices. The process is dynamic and organic, involving many interacting and overlapping phenomenon which are interdependent on one another.

Development implies moving from where we are to where we want to be. It implies an attempt to control the future, and the values, goals and standards attributed to devlopment are normative rather than universal. Those in power, not necessarily political power, prescribe the objectives and values of development and interpret how they may be

achieved, including the changes in education which are thought to be necessary to bring them about. At another level, it should be realised that development should be meaningful to those it affects and it should be responsive to circumstances in their world. There is a local component to development. Altbach (1987:328-329) reminds that development can not be successfully achieved by a top down technicist approach:

> "Typically reforms are stimulated by perceived crises and proposed by authorities at the top. However since implementation must take place at the bottom, it is frequently difficult to ensure that policies are put into practice...(it is better if)...proposals emerge from those actually involved in the process of teacher education. The commitment to implementation comes from those who developed the plans".

Harnqvist (in Psacharopolous 1987:356) stresses the social demand associated with development. This refers to the demand for education emerging from the needs and aspirations of individual persons, as contrasted to educational demand based on the personnel requirements of society. This demand for development is not synonymous with economic development. Rising expectations economically can be tempered by a value system, such as the 'culture of poverty' (Radhakrishna in Kotze 1983:13) which puts a premium on the achievement of spiritual values, such as mental development, neighbourliness and community interests.

The success of development can therefore be assessed by referring to many, and often seemingly disparate, indices. Kotze (1983:14-15) specifies some of the development indices in categories:

(i) *Economic indicators* such as income, expenditure, consumer patterns, savings, investment, production, foreign trade, imports and exports;

(ii) *Social indicators* such as health, nutrition patterns, education, employment, conditions of service, housing, social security, welfare services, recreation, freedom, clothing, transport, communications and professional structure;

(iii) *Institutional indicators* such as political attitudes and behaviour, economic relations (e.g. patterns of land tenure), organisational change, production patterns (e.g. industialisation), social structures, and patterns of distribution; and

(iv) *Development values* such as quality of life, equality, participation and satisfaction of needs.

6.19.1 EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Education has commonly been considered central to development. Niven (1972:33) expresses the commonly held belief about education in a developing society:

> "...the developing society has perforce to provide education at the levels of basic and functional literacy, secondary (both academic and vocational) as well as tertiary and further education. This must be done if the developing society is to survive, let alone flourish and become economically viable, as well as socially and politically stable, and to accept its responsibilities within the world community".

In this view, education is perceived to be the most important social agent which can be employed to secure the

necessary development of, or adjustment within, the society. Education is the foundation for building up the human resources needed to effect development at every level and is perceived as an agent for bringing about change. The World Bank (in Thompson 1981:21) characterises the process thus:

> "At bottom, what is meant by 'development' is a process of enabling people to accomplish things that they could not do before - that is, to learn and apply information, attitudes, values and skills previously unavailable to them. Learning is not usually enough by itself. Most aspects of development require capital investment and technical processes. But capital and technology are inert without human knowledge and effort. In this sense, human learning is central to development".

The result of this process in educational terms is not simply for persons to have more, but to be more (Kotze 1983: 12). Apart from the personal development, interpersonal development is also stressed, wherein education aims to equalise the differences between persons.

Malherbe's (in Niven 1972:31) characterisation of education as "...providing for the growth of the type as well as ensuring growth beyond the type..." sums up education for development succinctly. The teaching profession is perceived to be a major component in such a reform process.

6.19.2 EDUCATION AS A MEANS OF PROMOTING DEVELOPMENT

The question arises as to what one actually does to effect or promote development *via* education. Coombs (1985:66) sums up the kind of thinking prevelant in developing countries:

> "...the best way a democratically inclined state could overcome gross disparities noted in past prejudices and socio-economic injustices was by a massive expansion in

> education...(*via* a programme of)...universal primary education and increased access to secondary and higher education, remedial literacy for adults..."

This implies broadening educational opportunities. For example, the 1961 Addis Ababa Conference suggested universal compulsory free education for all children from the age of 6 years, with 30% of these pupils proceeding to secondary education, and 20% of these pupils (i.e. 6% of the overall total) proceeding to higher education.

The process of improving educational provision quantitatively has achieved a fair measure of success. De Lange (Report 14, 1981:40) comments:

> "From the available data it is clear that the quantitative expansion of educational opportunities as a result of the progressive institution of general schooling did indeed contribute a great deal towards the stimulation of national development and economic growth".

However, severe reservation has been expressed concerning the quantitative approach. The perception of a rapid quantitative expansion of educational opportunities which would, it was believed, provide the key to unequalled national development and economic growth, was tempered by the shortcomings of this approach in reality. Poverty and inequality persisted. In spite of a high correlation between level of education and earning capacity, especially at secondary and tertiary levels, mass education failed to equate with mass employment opportunities. The cost of secondary and higher education is prohibitive in a developing economy, and it resulted mainly in a more educated unemployed. Subsequent studies have stressed the

importance of primary education, as opposed to high status, but very expensive, university education.

Up to ninety primary children can be educated at the same cost as one student in higher education at university. The economic and personal advantages of universal primary education for the person and the country have been established by world authorities such as the World Bank. The education a country can afford is dictated by its available manpower and fianancial resources. Unesco (1977:204) holds that: "An education system, whatever its conceptual strengths and weaknesses, can only be as good as the national capacity to make it function". We have already noted that social progress does not come automatically with economic growth. In fact economic development is inconceivable except in conjunction with social development. This becomes clear when we consider the factors affecting the success of education for development, which include *inter alia*:

- teacher dedication and competence;
- teaching conditions, including physical provision;
- pupil characteristics, including health, enrichment and motivation;
- family support;
- societal support; and

- the availability of a learning infrastructure including books, newspapers, radio and television.

In any education for development planning, the basic need is for an integrated, balanced policy that takes into account the social needs, possibilities and aspirations of the people themselves. Another aspect of education for development concerns the curriculum changes and innovations. Indeed development presupposes a process of developmental change. But what should be taught? Coombs (1985:54) has listed the essential characteristics which he feels should be imparted:

- positive attitudes;

- functional literacy and numeracy;

- a scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the processes of nature;

- functional knowledge and skills for raising a family and operating a household;

- functional knowledge and skills for earning a living; and

- functional knowledge and skills for civic participation.

Given the lack of clarity between factors in educational provision and their outcomes in the developmental processes of a country, it is obvious that educational reform at any level and in any country is a difficult process. Developing

the potential of a nation through education, by exploiting its growth potential, is an economic aim which is not easy to realise in educational terms *via* schooling. Coombs (1985: 5) perceives the inability of education to adapt successfully to the changes brought about by revolutions in science and technology, economic and political affairs and in demographic and social structures, as the essence of the worldwide crisis in education. In spite of educational systems having grown and changed more rapidly than ever before, persons have still adapted too slowly in relation to the events occurring around them, resulting in disparities. Gaps are perceived between education and employment, varying educational inequalities, inabilities to afford education and the gap between education and the development needs of societies. Coombs (1985:6) sees the problems associated with the more linear expansion of educational systems as follows:

> "...the effects of a mechanistic preoccupation with the linear expansion (of the educational system) led to the erosion of quality and relevance and to the diversion of energies from the qualitative changes that could help raise the internal efficiency and external productivity of educational systems".

Consideration as to what the teacher education curriculum should look like to achieve developmental aims is beyond the scope of this work, apart from being aware that such changes are essential, even urgent, and any system for the provision of education must perforce be adaptable to accommodate local aspirations as well as national needs. However the economic and financial aspects need to be considered to some degree, as any proposals should make some sense economically and be

as financially efficient as is possible, given the urgent financial constraints surrounding education.

6.20 SUMMARY

Adopting a first principle approach, the need for education, the benefits of education, and the value of education to the economy and the individual citizen were considered, including factors such as growth, development, and public and private demand.

The principles on which educational provision in general, and teacher education in particular, should be based were reviewed. It was held that the funding of teacher education should be related to the importance of universal primary, and to a lesser extent secondary, schooling needs, because of the excellent public benefits, and the private benefits to the individual citizen, flowing therefrom. The argument presented was that society is the overwhelming beneficiary of primary and secondary schooling, and it was necessary for the State to ensure a sufficient supply of good quality teachers by subvention. Teachers, in providing (primary) schooling, thereby balance social inequities and make more equal life chances possible. As the provision of teachers is directly related to the importance of schooling, it was argued that teacher training should primarily be funded by the State.

In order to realise economies of scale, and viewing colleges of education as educational institutions with a unique mission and a particular expertise, it was held that all

pre-service teacher education should be conducted entirely in colleges of education, at degree and diploma levels, as *per* the Scottish model.

It was proposed that colleges of education should be administered on a corporate basis. This would enable the college sector to be funded on a collegial basis which would promote greater financial efficiencies and a better utilisation of physical and manpower resources.

Various methods of funding were critically considered, namely the voucher, the grant and the loan systems. In funding the collegiate sector, it was felt that the best funding arrangement would be a grant system on a corporate basis, coupled with loans for students on a work redemption contract basis, with separate deficit funding in order to establish parity and equity in provision and standards. Some of the costs could be borne by the individual student, but this should be kept to a minimum. Residential accommodation costs should also be sponsored by the State to some extent, given the advantages of residential teacher education facilities.

Collegial administration was proposed because of its positive influence in control and efficiency considerations. The collegiate model allows for corporate experience and wisdom to be exploited in financial planning and administration, whilst at the same time ensuring institutional autonomy. The Collegium would act as a link between the government and the colleges, funnelling needs up

to the government and implementing governmental policy decisions in an efficient and effective way, whilst taking cognisance of the particular needs of the individual colleges. Although based on the UGC concept, the Collegium proposal does not exclude governmental input and control to a reasonable extent.

The proposed collegiate model represents a national, unitary system of collegiate administration, which is articulated with all the other phases and levels of educational provision. It accommodates planning and coordination on a national basis. The Collegium can advise the government on college matters and act as a broker in carrying out government policy requirements. As a source of collective wisdom and experience, it can provide guidance and control in the provision of teacher education and can promote inter-institutional cooperation and collaboration. In this way, colleges would be able to function exclusively, yet corporately.

The Collegium concept is very much in line with current rationalisation proposals. It is also a functional way of realising parity of provision and equity considerations.

Consideration was also given to the role of education in development and change, with particular reference to considerations of the political, economic and humanitarian aspects of development and change. In the provision and financing of teacher education, emphasis must be given to factors such as equality of opportunity, justice and human

rights, and to countering past injustices and paucity in educational provision. South Africa is on the verge of a radical transformation of its society, including its economy. In this transition, primary education in particular will be of cardinal importance, and the provision of teacher education is irrevocably linked to, and will form a part of, this transformation.

NOTE

The core references, on which the discussion and facts in this chapter were based, are:

Crew & Young (1977)

Dove (1986)

Dreijmanis (1988)

Gaydon (1987)

Harman & Smith (1976)

Hartman (1971)

Hinchliffe (1987)

Psacharopoulos (1980)

Simmons (editor) (1980)

Thompson (1981)

Westoby (1979)

Woodhall (1970) and (1983)

CHAPTER SEVEN

7 TEACHER EDUCATION WITHIN HIGHER EDUCATION: POLICY ISSUES

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the status and place of teacher education, and teacher education institutions, within higher education will be discussed on the basis of comparative and philosophical considerations. The approach will be to establish a 'first principle' basis for the collegiate university model proposals by considering options and possibilities from a theoretical perspective.

7.2 THE REALM OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education is post-secondary education which is differentiated from 'further education', the latter usually being considered as the less academic pursuit. There are no generally agreed upon criteria which distinguish higher education practices and institutions. Barrett (1985:249) defines higher education as a process of individual development, through the acquisition of objective knowledge in a process of rational and open-ended discussion. A definition such as this gives very little insight into the complexity of a concept such as higher education. It is more helpful perhaps to consider the concept 'education', and then consider the aims or purpose of higher education in order to gain a greater clarity on what is meant by higher education.

Carnegie (1977:152) characterises education as follows:

> "Education consists of a series of events and activities that are designed to help individuals to increase their intellectual, social, personal, and moral potentials. At its best, it confronts people of all ages with the realities of their environment, the human condition, and the ideals toward which human beings have striven throughout history. It prepares them for productive activity. It opens their minds to alternative ways of thinking and living. It acquaints them with ways of learning and makes it possible for them to educate themselves. It provides a foundation for making judgements, for determining personal and cultural values, for choosing appropriate courses of action. It builds consensus and therefore can be an instrument of socialization and social control. It also increases the tolerance individuals have for diversity and therefore can enlarge freedom. The work of education is to make a positive difference in people's lives and also to change society, over time, through the works of those it educates. But within that orientation there is considerable room for institutional diversity, because the educational needs of both individuals and society are multifaceted".

Higher education is precisely education in the Carnegie mould, but it has certain additional characteristics which are highlighted in the literature as:

- the advancement of knowledge and scholarship;

- promoting moral and ethical development;

- enhancing interpersonal competence;

- evoking humanitarian concern;

- moulding, cultivating and refining persons;

- ensuring intellectual competence in one field, as well as access to related fields;

- arousing intellectual curiosity;

- engendering a critical approach *via* a general intellectual faculty;

- being associated with universal values and truths;

- finding and training talent, and guiding it to a greater usefulness;

- promoting the ability to judge and to assemble information presented in various ways;

- cultivating the critical competences of reflection, evaluation and criticism; and

- engendering personal initiative.

It is the distinguishing characteristic of a healthy higher education that, even where it is concerned with practical techniques, it imparts them on the plane of generality that makes possible their application to many problems (Robbins in Scott 1988:42). This is demanded of the world of learning by the world of affairs. What is required is not merely detailed knowledge, but transferable skills to novel situations and tasks. In this way higher education transcends the particular by representing a general way of codifying experience and general ways of knowing. Although in this process the theoretical may need a practical illustration, for a subject to qualify as an academic study it cannot virtually explain itself. There must be some reference to general ways of knowing. Higher education should provide an all-round development and not leave the fostering of qualities other than cognitive skills to chance. The Robbins Committee saw the aim of higher

education as producing not mere specialists, but cultivated men and women.

The aims of teacher education coincide with the aims of higher education and the purposes of higher education institutions. There is a concern with the development of each student's autonomy, self critical abilities and academic competence. A critical education aims at undermining the undue deference for conventional wisdom, in that students are encouraged to have their own ideas on issues. Opportunities are provided for the intellectual, aesthetic, ethical and skill development of the individual students, although a corporate campus ethos constructively assists students in their more general growth. Higher educational institutions are concerned with the advancement of human capabilities in society at large, as well as a critical evaluation of the society with a view to societal self-renewal. At the same time higher education is conservative in its role of transmitting the learning, culture and wisdom in society, in addition to advancing knowledge and culture.

Research is central to higher education and it is a commonly held belief that undergraduate teaching benefits substantially from the research activities of the lecturers. Leverhulme (in Jacques and Richardson 1985:8) has challenged this view by arguing that there is really very little connection between the two. Indeed, good research and good teaching are often portrayed as being antagonistic aspects of a lecturer's duties. Colleges of education are criticised

for not being research institutes and therefore not worthy of the 'higher education' appellation. Yet Barrett (1988: 108) holds that research need not connote large research grants or massive capital equipment for research puposes. Research in the sense of 'a culture of critical discourse' or a 'systematic critical inquiry' is valid. He sees critical inquiry as the essence of higher education. Carter (1980:33) holds that:

> "It is scholarship, rather than research in the sense of establishing new knowledge, which is the essential ingredient in enlivening teaching and giving it authority".

One of the aims of the collegiate model will be to promote a corporate scholarship in the colleges of education. The basic responsibility of a college of education, as an institution of higher education, should be to provide good educational opportunities for its students to develop an understanding of society, to develop academic and technical competence appropriate for a teacher and to explore cultural interests and enhance cultural skills. The employment dimension of the training should not exclude or override the other objectives of higher education. In order to achieve such objectives, a college should be an autonomous self-directed community that can choose its own purposes. As a self-determining institution, it should take corporate responsibility for the maintenance of its own standards and future development. In order to achieve this, any model for the provision of teacher education should permit the colleges an internal life which promotes the establishment of a self-critical and self-learning academic community. At

the same tme, a college of education cannot be an island. It must interact with its peer institutions and be relevant to the society at large.

Embling (1974:12) has isolated four trends in the development of higher education *viz.*

(i) the *personal development* of young persons;

(ii) *economic development*, including manpower training and profesional development;

(iii) *political development via* the evaluation and criticism of society; and

(iv) *service to society.*

Teacher education conducted in fully fledged colleges appropriate to the means and ends of higher education, can patently be seen to be involved in realising all four of these concerns of higher education.

Carter (1980:62-63) isolated the requirements of society and the individual to be met by an appropriate curriculum of higher education. These ideals are appropriate to the aims of teacher education and should be characteristic of all higher teacher education programmes:

> "A supply of people with a range of skills and an extent of understanding which will make them capable both of rapid learning of an initial task and of subsequent adaptation to changing demands; the 'extent of understanding' implying *both* an appreciation of basic principles, scientific laws or statistical associations in the main field of interest, *and* a sufficient appreciation of related fields.

> The enrichment of culture: an advanced knowledge of part of our heritage which can be a basis for new achievement.
>
> A high state of understanding of the workings of society.
>
> A critical and questioning mind which initiates change where change is appropriate.
>
> The development of high level cognitive skills.
>
> Deeper understanding of ethical problems.
>
> The attainment of emotional maturity and balance, and the learning of social skills.
>
> The development of creative skills and aesthetic appreciation".

Higher education of this nature occurs in a tertiary institution, epitomised by the university. The collegiate model is proposed as, in part, a university and so the idea of the university and its development and evolution will be considered in order to substantiate the claims for teacher education to occur within a collegiate university structure.

7.3 THE IDEA OF A UNIVERSITY

In America the colleges of education were upgraded to university status and given their own charters. In Britain, colleges of education have become degree awarding institutions *via* the CNAA and recently some have received their own charter. The question is whether in South Africa some colleges should be enabled to offer degree courses if they reach a high enough standard and approximate a university. This is a polemical issue and so an attempt will be made to substantiate the view that colleges of education, which have developed and are worthy of a degree-giving

status, should be encouraged to do so, by considering the matter from first principles.

What constitutes a univesity is difficult to specify. It is a degree-awarding institution, but this begs the question as to what sort of institution should be permitted to be a degree-awarding institution. Cardinal Newman (in Fletcher 1984:401) asserted that the business of a university is to employ itself in "the education of the intellect...its function is intellectual culture..." Phillipson(1983:116) concurs that the aim of university is to cultivate the mind and form the intellect. Wandira (1977:261) sees the function of the university very differently, as the transmission of high culture and making men truly civilised. The Robbins Committee perceived the role of higher education in the univesity as:

(i) the transmission of a common culture and a common standard of citizenship;

(ii) the advancement of learning;

(iii) teaching to promote the general powers of the mind; and

(iv) instruction in skills suitable to play a part in the general division of labour (Robbins 1963:6-7).

For Dewey (in Blishen 1969:197) social life involves a shared understanding of values, ideas, beliefs and practices, and education is an initiation into such a life, and this includes university education.

Carling (1985:335) sees the univesity as an institution for the promotion of thought and knowledge. Although the idea of a university can mean different things to different people, he held that there are certain things which a university is not. It is not:

- an engine for economic growth, as it is not responsible for the use of resources;

- an academic community, but includes academics;

- a business enterprise, although it should be managed economically and well;

- an ornament of culture, although culture may be a by product of its functioning;

- a buttress to shore up a social order;

- an instrument for social change, although social change may occur as a result of its processes; and

- able to isolate itself from its own surroundings.

It is readily apparent that, although certain characteristics may be claimed to be representative of a university, the idea of a university is a dynamic and complex concept, a process of ongoing evolvement which has a stable core, but many differing facets. For a college to award degrees and become a university will depend on the manner in which it functions, rather than a series of attributes that can be ticked off on a list.

It may be more fruitful to consider the evolution of the university over time to gain an insight into what constitutes a university and what its modern form represents.

7.4 STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY

This discussion is based primarily on Scott (1984).

The medieval university was essentially an autonomous guild, independent of the secular and church authorities, with a full say over its internal affairs. God represented the absolute truth and research consisted in creating order, in systematising knowledge, and in logical thought. The guilds were interest groups, such as manual labourers, tradesmen, and artists, including a guild of students and teachers, out of which the univesity evolved. In the 12th to 14th centuries, the guild of teachers and students were called *universitas magistrarum et scholarum* and they had the right to grant degrees and they controlled and disciplined their members. The aim of the early universities was to produce good citizens, who formed an elite leadership.

From the 15th century onwards, there was an explosion of new knowledge. The university evolved in the sense of becoming an autonomous community of teachers and students who were dedicated to the search and respect for truth and knowledge. This more secular knowledge, with secular disciplines and authority, was a threat to the governments who tried to control what was taught and how it was taught.

In time the liberal university emerged, wherein investigation was more important than instruction. Learning for its own intrinsic value occurred, independent of church or State control. These universities were free in the sense of being open and unbiased, detached, and selective in the subject matter and methodological approach. The liberal universities were involved in the transmission of knowledge and the search for new knowledge. As the liberal university moved in time towards the modern university, the research became more scientific and empirical. The general moulding of the liberal univesity was retained. Utilitarian considerations became important and the applicability of the knowledge was of concern. These emerging modern universities became less exclusive, less idealistic and more practical in their approach. They were more analytical and anti-subjective, which meant that issues in politics and religion were avoided, in a false show of neutrality. Because of this uncritical approach, matters moral and spiritual were neglected (Ferguson 1986:63).

From the 1960's, the 'free university' of the past became the 'committed university' in that it took on new functions. The modern multiversity has no single end. It serves many ends and many groups. As universities moved from elite education to mass higher education, they had to accommodate new kinds of students, research in new areas, offer new courses, act on a consultancy basis and conduct services oriented towards societal needs. Universities became instruments of democratic ideology and had to accommodate

the technological society. Of late, with the expansion of universities, the State has become involved in trying to maximise its investment. Not only are attempts made to harness universities to expand the economy, but within the system efforts have been made to make the university system more efficient and accountable.

7.5 THE MODERN UNIVERSITY

This section is based primarily on chapter 3 in Scott (1984).

A collegiate university would be in the modern university mould and so the phenomenon of a modern university will be considered in more detail.

Flexner (in Scott 1984:54) holds that a university is an expression of an age. The modern university has become more instrumental, in that it has become more directly and intensely influenced by the interests of the State, of the economy and of civil society. The modern perception is that the univesity should be more utilitarian in that it should contribute directly, intentionally and immediately to the pressing and economic purposes of society (Holmes & Scanlon 1972:90). This is the antithesis of the liberal university, which saw intellectual authority as being opposed to, and distinct from, political, social and industrial power. The change may, in part, be explained by the knowledge explosion, especially in the sciences and technology, which has increased the need for trained people and heralded in the age of mass higher education. Coupled with this demand

for knowledge and skills, the raised standard of living of the masses has meant that they have the money to pay for this education and training, unlike in the past where universities were the prerogative of a monied elite. Not only has there been a demand for more education, but the demand is for useful and relevant knowledge, rather than the liberal universities' intrinsic value of knowledge for knowledge's sake. The modern university has evolved in the face of political and social movements, where privilege and elitism have been replaced by the equity concept, and egalitarian ideas and ideologies. Higher education, especially at university level, has become to be seen as a right rather than a privilege. The feeling has also developed that a university should serve its society and its needs. Nguntombi (1984:312) claims:

> "...the modern concept of the university all over the world and, especially, in developing countries includes service to the community or society which implies that university autonomy should always be seen in conjunction with the aspirations of a particular community or society in which the university exists and operates".

The trend towards greater democratisation, vocationalisation and stronger State control of universities has meant that many new and varied courses have been introduced to cater for the many forms of professional training, some of which do not require a rigorous fundamental theoretical basis. These courses are offered as degree courses because of a powerful lobby and its desire to use the university as a means of acquiring status for the profession and its

practitioners, and as a form of screening and selection of practitioners to be admitted. Scott (1984:73) notes that:

> "...this new and substantial commitment to vocationalism, whether traditional industrial values or newer 'service' ones, reflected to some extent the disintegration of a traditional intellectual culture in the realm of academic values. But to a large extent it was a response to external pressure and in particular to the imperatives of expansion".

Any harking back to the goldern age of liberal higher education is appropriate only to a limited extent however. A university cannot remain timeless. In the matter of providing professional education, this has been the function of a university from the medieval times. For example, 40% of the ancient university students were ordained in the profession of the priesthood. Similarly in the time of the British Empire, the elite universities were the training ground for the public administrators who ruled the realm.

On the other hand, matters have changed and are cause for concern. Up until the Robbins report (1963), professional education for most of the teachers, architects, journalists, accountants, lawyers, bankers and businessmen was categorised as 'further' rather than 'higher' education and was not conducted in a university. Similarly in areas of technology, such as atomic physics, space engineering and computer science, which have emerged as disciplines relatively recently, society has required and prescribed that the training should be *via* a university education, and the university has had to adapt to accommodate these changes. In so doing the university has changed.

The challenge has been to adapt the classical ideas of a liberal education to the modern needs at a practical level. This has resulted in a problem, in that the legitimacy of the university has been challenged. Should a university exist to achieve concrete ends? Is the intellectual content of certain service disciplines too slight to justify a place in a university? Should a university concentrate on general education or practical professional skills training?

In the face of such queries, and given the widely differing functions of training, service and research in the mass education 'multiversity', the universities have retained their elist tradition in the research aspect. The justification for a discipline thus becomes its potential for leading to quality research. Access to graduate institutions becomes more restricted than is the case with vocationally-oriented undergraduate courses. Graduate courses are, in effect, forming a quarternay level of education, although certain professional education courses still follow the more traditional pattern of additional studies after a general baccalaureate degree education, such as the post-graduate HDE for teaching and the post-graduate LLB for lawyers.

This does not solve the problem however. There is still a need to differentiate explicity between the traditionally fundamental task of a university and the mere training for an occupation, which should not belong to a university ethos. The seminal question is whether the central idea of a university should preclude the concept of training? If we

mean an apprenticeship model of training to master mere skills, such as occurs in bricklaying, certainly this is not the stuff of universities. But training can be at an appropriate level for a univesity, say in the instance of a professional training which is steeped in a substantial theoretical knowledge, based on a growing research base, and geared towards providing a responsible social service in an acceptable way.

The Robbins Committee established that universities should be involved in the instruction of skills suitable to the general division of labour and emphasised that there was no betrayal of values when institutions of higher education teach that which will be of some practical use (in du Plessis 1987:29). The proviso is that what is taught, should be taught in such a way as to promote the 'general powers of the mind'. Even when the concern is with practical techniques, the knowledge should be imparted on a plane of generality that makes possible their application to many problems. The gaining of specific skills is usually relegated to an articleship, or an internship, constituting on-the-job-training.

In training teachers, the education/practical training division is also subject to debate. Historically, the Scottish universities declined to have any part in teacher training. They retained the academic studies of education and relegated the training function to the colleges. It is interesting to note that in Scotland, teaching is a fully graduate profession with teacher training and education

taking place almost exclusively in the colleges of education.

Today, teacher training no longer consists of a litany of vocational techniques acquired by 'sitting with Nellie'. Teacher training includes the acquisition of theoretical knowledge and factual information, without an undue emphasis on professional skills *per se*, although the pressures for an increased professional component, albeit theoretically based, is strongly discernible. Professional skills, *per se*, tend to be addressed during the practice teaching periods, and the call for an internship period integral to the professional training is widespread. In any event, teacher training is not antipathetic to the idea of a university or to its mission in the modern western world.

The nature and role of universities in South Africa are relevant to any consideration of the establishment of a collegiate university for teacher education and training.

7.6 UNIVERSITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

The core references for this section are the South African Institute of Race Relations publications and Behr (1984)

Historically, universities in South Africa have been formed and effected by separatist polices. From the 1950's, the apartheid 'equal but separate' policies lead to the universities being segregated on racial lines. The Extension of the University Education Act, 1959 (Act 45 of 1959) provided for the establishment, maintenance, management and

control of universities for black, Indian and coloured persons according to the official racial classifications. A member of one racial group was not permitted to attend a university designated for another racial group. This new type of university, the state-controlled ethnic university, fell under the administrative control of a university council of white persons who were appointed by the State President. These councils were answerable to the Minister of Bantu Education, the universities forming an integral part of this department. From 1969, these universities started to come under black control, although much of the administration and the appointments remained subject to ministerial fiat and the councils remained white, with the first black univesity council members being appointed in 1974. The Minister's powers were transferred to the university councils in 1977.

The white liberal universities continually pressured the government for permission to admit persons on merit, irrespective of their colour. Eventually they acted without official permission or approval in this regard. The Universities Amendment Act, 1983 (Act 83 of 1983) was introduced ostensibly to allow some persons of colour into these universities, but in effect it was to control the admissions *via* a quota system. Although the Act was passed into law, the reaction was so severe that the quota system was never properly implemented.

South African universities, although academic in nature, had taken on the image of professional training schools and were

in many cases dominated academically by the respective professional bodies (Nel 1983:217). The orientation towards vocational and professional training was in sharp contrast to the schooling system which was overwhelmingly academic in nature. The van Wyk de Vries Commission emphasised the academic function of a university, but felt that the preparation for a profession was a suitable university endeavour, provided that preparation should be distinguished from training. Precisely where the distinction lay was not specified.

The colleges of education have similarly been run according to a racial dispensation. Because they have fallen more directly under the control of the various racial departments, they are still run almost exclusively along racial 'own affairs' lines.

The future developments of universities and higher education in South Africa must take cognisance of the fact that it is *de facto*, and probably will be *de jure* in the near future, an African country, which means that the universities should become Africanised to some extent, including, and perhaps especially, teacher education in colleges of education.

7.7 THE AFRICAN UNIVERSITY

The primary sources for this section are Dhloma (1979), Totemeyer (1987) and Wandira (1978).

Universities in Africa have been beset with problems and have not developed as optimal local institutions. They were

established on colonial lines inherited from their imperialist overlords, and this model is neither appropriate or adequate for their needs. They remain institutions which establish and serve a local elite, with international pretensions, who lay claim to an exclusive place in their society. Because many of these elite students proceed to post-graduate studies overseas, the universities have not been able, or permitted, to differ too radically from the overseas model of a university. These universities have international and metropolitan standards, yet their students are not in this mould and these universities do not meet the needs of the bulk of the ordinary local students, because they do not draw their inspiration from the local environment.

The African university suffers the problems of the developing society. Resources are inadequate, with a shortage of human, financial and material requirements. Teaching and learning methods and materials are imported and alien, and good staff are hard to come by and retain. Management and administration of the African universities are often inept because of the lack of resources and suitable staff development. The univesities are often the object of political turbulance and blind ideological commitments. Ethnic and religious differences can be detrimental to the efficiency and effectiveness of the African University. Problems are encountered with tribal chauvinism, parochial sentiments and language barriers. Appointments of staff are consequently made very often on

political criteria, rather than academic merit. It is little wonder that African universities suffer from a lack of direction.

What could, or should, an African university be like? The call is for African universities to become Africanised by creating an African identity and by relating to local conditions. There is a need to develop local staff, to develop local teaching materials based on relevant research conducted according to locally developed competences. Professor Kgwane, Rector of the University of the North, holds that:

> "Africanization of curricula demands, as a prerequisite, Africanization of teaching personnel or the employment of teaching personnel which are in active sympathy with the aspirations of the Blacks..." (Behr 1984:221).

Universities do not exist in a vacuum; they exist in, and form part of, the socio-political, economic and cultural context of their country. They need to have a social relevance, to have a close contact with their society and an appreciation of its needs. They need to be aware of the cultural context within which they operate. They need to take account of the varying mores, beliefs, modes of socialisation, behaviours and normal practices which exist in their society (Mosha 1986:120). They need to take on an existence independent of their Eurocentric origins and become rooted in the culture of the people. Wandira (1978: 73) feels that the task of the African university is as follows:

> "Having established themselves and been accepted as universities, (they have) a special responsibility to evolve an identity of their own, and adapt the alien form of the university to one that is a recognisable part of the African social and cultural environment".

This implies that education in the African university must be relevant in terms of the life experiences, cultural realities and environmental cues of its students. In research, their efforts should be geared to national development issues and directed at solving the basic needs of the country. The emphasis should be on being immediately relevant and useful.

It is commonly felt that universities should play a role in national development by addressing problems arising in the socio-political and socio-economic order within the African society. Indeed, the main function of an African university may be perceived as playing a crucial role in addressing and helping to solve the everyday problems such as poverty, ignorance, hunger, disease, social disorganisation, low production, unemployment, illiteracy and poor living conditions. This constitutes a move from the purist vision of a university to a more utilitarian view, as occurred historically in the western world. The move is away from the ivory tower concept of a university occupied by a minority elite. The orientation is one of concern for solving problems by concentrating predominantly on concrete tasks within the immediate environment and responding to felt needs in the society. This kind of a university is instrumental in nature. Its research is applied and relative to local needs. Its examinations reflect the usefulness of

what is learnt. We will now consider some aspects of this instrumental higher eduction.

The African university is expected to take part in the development of a country by assisting to transform the society and its economy into a modern one. Manpower development is considered central to the African university role in development. Niven (1972:31) holds that :

> "...a nation or society cannot be said to have exploited its growth potential until it has fully developed the potential of its population through education".

Planned manpower development is seen as the basis for economic and educational development, which permit progress and modernisation. In this regard, the universities take on the role of "...factories of approved market orientated manpower" (Wandira 1981:265). The aim is to develop and exploit human resources by imparting skills which impact on societal development.

Physical resource exploitation is also essential to a developing country. The importance of agriculture to facilitate the production of an adequate food supply is fundamental to the needs of many African societies. There is a related need to develop technical education in order to maintain plant and solve the practical problems encountered in a developing society. Mosha (1986:118) has characterised development education as the need to plan and implement programmes and projects that are relevant to national needs. He feels the necessity for addressing the whole range of developmental needs, within the purview of the community

experience, as an integrated and entirely coherent, indivisible set of circumstances. Such a global assessment and a holistic approach is well placed within the university perspective.

Education is therefore seen as a very important social agent which can be employed to secure the necessary development of, or adjustment within, a society. There is a danger in instrumental education in that the aims, structures and operations of the university may become externally determined. Nyerere's injunction (in Mosha 1986:117) that a university must "...prepare its students to understand society and to know the problems of the country..." can so easily legitimate universities becoming perpetrators or transmitters of ideologies. Yesufu (1973:82) stresses the need for a university to become fully committed to active participation in social transformation and economic modernisation. Such claims could be interpreted in either Marxian or capitalist ideology, and it is a moot point as to whether this is what is meant by a university being committed to relevant and practical ends.

There have been criticisms of universities trying to realise social needs and ends. Neither attempts at modernisation or trying to counter under-development are considered as adequate models for enhancing development, as social changes only follow on economic changes (Totemeyer 1987:55). Dr Henderson (in Behr 1984:327) warns:

> "The university should not be conceived of as a branch of a country's social service apparatus: nor should it

> be called upon to solve virtually all the social ills that we, in these days, have developed".

Indeed, estimates of the returns of education show that investing in primary education yields the highest social payoff. The long term view may perhaps be that universities have a greater role to play in time provided that public spending is reallocated to primary education in the short term. This would enhance the efficiency of the alloction of resources and benefit the poor income groups which are most widely represented at the lower levels of education. Primary education has specific, fundamental and limited objectives *viz.* to promote literacy, numeracy and adjustment to the community within society. It enhances individual needs and sets the basis for manpower requirements. The role of a collegiate university, geared towards producing quality primary and secondary teachers within a broader university ethos, may be best placed to represent the prototype African university, because of its academic perspective coupled with a close association with ordinary people in communities. Teachers are perhaps ideally placed to straddle 'the real world' and academe.

Dhlomo (1979:60) feels that the teacher represents the 'educated man' in the rural African community. He therefore needs to be educated in such a way as to be able to see and interpret the needs, feelings and hopes of the community. As a mainstay of his rural community, the teacher needs to be a change agent, an initiator of change, in society. He must not only be the conveyor of intellectual and moral enlightenment, but the representative of 'the good life' in

its totality. This represents an anti-elitist approach to higher education. At the same time it establishes teachers as a source of intellectual leadership by imparting intellectual skills and knowledge to the pupils as well as transmitting the attitudes and values of the society. These aspects will impact on the total development of the community in which the teacher works.

Mazrui (in Totemeyer 1987:57) feels that the most persistent moral imperative demanded by reformers is one which seeks to establish for the university a 'tradition of responsiveness' to the practical needs of the moment. In the place of academic detachment, academics need to become sensitive and responsive to the real problems of the country and satisfy the increasing expectations and demands of the population of an under-developed country. Chideya (1982:14) encapsulates the need as 'relevance with excellence'. Aspects of concern should include manpower and human resources development, the vocationalising of the curriculum, establishing community programmes, sensitising the students to community problems and a concern for equity, social justice and lifelong education. The developmental role of the university incorporates being a prime mover in the transition of the society from traditionalism to modernity.

The African university needs a pluralist approach that accommodates unity within diversity and promotes inter-cultural dialogue. It needs to participate within the processes of national and cultural integration, by transcending parochial concerns and tribal barriers. It

needs to develop in its students a social conscience and a sense of commitment. Kriel (in Totemeyer 1987:56) feels that possibly the most important function of an African university is:

> "The personal development of the student, assisting him to grow to full intellectual, emotional and spiritual maturity, to develop and exercise his critical faculties, to know and to understand and to be aware ...."

In 1972 the Accra Workshop emphasized the responsibility of the African university to promote social and economic modernisation, to be involved in the pursuit and inculcation of practical knowledge, rather than esoteric knowledge, or knowledge for its own sake, and to give priority to research into local problems that would contribute to the amelioration of such problems, in particular, of the life of the ordinary man and the rural poor (Behr 1984:324). In respect of manpower training, the African university is exhorted to shift the emphasis in its degree programmes from the purely academic to the professional and practical. This model of a university is very appropriate to the proposed collegiate university model with its emphasis on community concerns *via* an academic and professional training and education.

Newman (in Nash and Ducharme 1983:38) has identified four dominant perspectives in education reform:

(i) The *Conventional Role Perspective* attempts to develop the competencies and attitudes necessary for performing as a worker, a family and community member, and a

democratic citizen. It encourages prosocial behaviour such as obeying laws, respecting property and caring for others, and prepares students to assume positions of responsibility in the community;

(ii) The *Developmental Perspective* focuses on individual growth in cognition, morality, affect and the self concept;

(iii) The *Cultural Emancipation Perspective* is concerned with contributions towards social justice through a curriculum that encourages a critical social analysis and individual freedom from oppression; and

(iv) The *Professional Technical Perspective* is concerned with manpower requirements and producing skilled workers, with social and economic utility in mind.

If these four perspectives are added to the traditional academic and liberal education associated with a university, it represents a model of what an African university perhaps should be concerned with, as well as providing a suitable template for professional teacher education.

There is a need for African universities to achieve a curriculum that is more generally and broadly based, and not tied to the changing social needs of a single time and place. Murphree (in Nguntombi 1989:77) points out the need for African universities to straddle the following sets of dichotomies:

(i) *Africanisation*, representing a contemporary relevance to needs and aspirations, as well as heritage; and *Pragmatism* which is related to national developmental needs and utility, such as in manpower training and research; and

(ii) *Particularism* in terms of the links with the immediate environment; and *Universalism* in being a part of the international academic community.

In South Africa, the evolution of a collegiate university will occur through corporate trial and error, with each college experimenting with its own curricula thrust, yet with a sharing of experience and learning from others' successes. Certainly the change towards a greater Africanisation will be challenging and involve compromise and understanding.

The discussion on the African university has highlighted the relationship between the university, and the State and society, and this issue will be considered briefly.

7.8 UNIVERSITY, SOCIETY AND STATE

The international trends discernible *vis-a-vis* universities are a greater democratisation and vocationalisation, and a stronger State control (Wandira 1981:256). This means that the State and institutions in society, such as the professions and the people, are demanding a greater say in what a university should be. The modern university is more utilitarian and pressures for it to be more instrumental in governmental and societal missions are persistent. At issue

is the balance between a university's right to be independent and autonomous and the right of the State and society to control the universities and call them to account. Trow (in Holmes & Scanlon 1972: 55) differentiates between an autonomous function in higher education, which is intrinsic to its nature, and concerns issues, for example, such as the socialisation of the youth and the creation of knowledge, and the popular function which occurs in response to external needs and requests.

The governmental responsibility is to ensure that institutions it has established have the resources necessary to maintain its inherent activities at reasonable standards. The van Wyk de Vries Commission (197:60) clarified the position:

> "...the university is in essence a union of spheres of societal relationships, all of which have an interest in the university, and it follows that those who have a material interest should also exercise control over the university".

The State, society and the community have a vested interest and therefore should have some form of say in the university. It is nature of that say that is important however. It is the task of the State to establish universities and monitor their progress and ascertain that they are accomplishing their task in an accountable way. A university may not act contrary to national needs and interests for example. Long term planning, coordination and rationalisation within the field of tertiary education are all absolutely essential to the national interest. No individual university can be completely free to determine

its own pattern of development without taking the national interest into account. The Robbins Committee (in Moser 1988: 17) felt that no sensible person could wish to deny the government the right to lay down broad principles of policy and administration for universities. Similary, the government can legitimately evaluate the performance of particular universities and decide on the allocation of funding, albeit in broad terms and according to its own criteria. Robbins stresses however that such responsibilities should be effected without danger to the academic freedom of the university. This is ensured by acting in an atmosphere which is free from political considerations. A government should not stifle innovation or direct the functioning of a university, as with all power, what starts out as accountability for spending public funds can end up as intrusive control. Shils (in Phillipson 1983:232) holds that:

> "Governments are moving steadily forward towards making the universities the instruments of their social ideals of efficiency, of justice and of the pre-eminence of government over all other institutions".

There is an important distinction between a university being *influenced* and being *determined* by outside agencies. Too much central control by the government or its agencies may hamper innovation and institutional development. The spirit of governmental bureaucracy is completely antipathetical to the real purposes of the university. There is a need to safeguard the interests of the university, and of the State, but the danger in protecting the State's interests is that legitimate influence may become illegitimate control. The

quality of provision should remain the responsibility of the institutions of higher education themselves.

Van Wyk de Vries (1974:39) points out that "...the university's greatest freedom lies in being voluntarily bound by the bonds proper to it by virtue of its nature". Moser (1988:18) points out the need for an intermediary to advise the government. This agency should be sensitive to the teaching and learning roles in the university or college. There is a need for a collective institutional voice. Tibble (1971:146) stressed the need for the establishment of a professional university which would accommodate accountability *via* professional links and service functions to local communities. These three ideas by the three authors, if melded together, are the essence of the collegiate university proposal. They contain the essence of collegiality in an interested and experienced corporate responsibility, links with the teaching profession, the community and the government, and a collective institutional voice.

The Carnegie Report (in Ross 1976:242-243) saw State authority as appropriate, *inter alia*, in the areas of the number of places and specific programmes for manpower needs, the size of the institutions, their general admissions' policy, financial and physical plant parameters, the general functions of the institutions, the effective use of resources, major new endeavours and the functioning of the institutions within the general law. Although no institution, which is funded primarily from public funds,

can expect to be completely free, autonomy and academic freedeom are cherished by the universities and guarded jealously. Mac Murray (in Berdahl 1959:184) states:

> "A university can only serve its community by serving humanity...If it were to adopt an exclusively national outlook or to become the servant of a merely national policy, it would betray the nation it thought to serve".

Jacques and Richardson (1985:15) feel that in an era of considerable change it would be better for the nation:

> "...if the changes are largely created and carried through by the initiative of institutions and teachers rather than by fiat of government or planning bodies".

They query how a national planning body can liberate initiative, encourage responsibility and develop confidence at the institutional level and within institutions? The collegiate concept is designed specifically to give the maximum autonomy possible within a system of academic, professional and administrative accountability.

The Carnegie Commission (1971) and the Robbins Committee (1963) saw the university as having an absolute right *inter alia* to decide on the appointment of staff, to determine courses of instruction and course content, to award degrees, set standards and decide on research projects, to publish research results and to enjoy the freedom of inquiry, speech and assembly. Robbins also assigned to the university the right to select its own students.

Yet autonomy and academic freedom are not without their potential dangers and problems. Williams and Blackstone (1983:114) point out that:

> "The fragmentation of control of the institutions amongst separate authorities, each an independent base of political power, makes it extremely difficult to develop coherent national policies for the sector as a whole, or to coordinate these".

With 15 departments responsible for teacher education in South Africa, this point is readily accepted and the collegiate concept is a way to coordinate teacher education into a national system, protecting institutional autonomy and setting limits appropriate to State requirements on a voluntary basis *via* ongoing consultation with the colleges and the government.

7.9 PLACE OF THE COLLEGES OF EDUCATION *VIS-A-VIS* THE UNIVERSITY

Various commissions and committees in Britain, South Africa and elsewhere have discussed the place of the college of education in relationship to the university. Three primary positions have been adopted:

(i) that all teacher training should be conducted entirely by universities;

(ii) that a college should function in conjunction with its local university; and

(iii) that colleges should become degree awarding, autonomous and independent teacher training institutions in their own right.

Each of these positions will be discussed and appraised, as the resolution of the relationship of the college of education sector to the university sector is central to any

proposals for the structure and organisation appropriate for the provision of teacher education.

7.9.1 UNIVERSITY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

Placing teacher education within the university mainstream has purported value. Teacher education within a university would be more independent and able to respond to the issues, rather than having to orientate towards administrators in Education Departments. The autonomy and academic freedom, inherent in a university ethos, would enable innovation without the threat of being brought to administrative heel or being threatened with closure.

Teaching should attract the most able students and consequently they should be educated and trained within the mainstream of higher education, the universities, which have the advantage of conferring a high status on teacher education. Universities are intellectually oriented, with a research basis, and promote the development of a critical mind and analytical thinking which are considered desirable for teacher training. This is compared with the apparently undesirable, monotechnic colleges of education, in that there is:

> "...a desire to move away from the existence of institutions firmly concerned with students, mostly female, who have come recently from schools, and who will be returning there on completion of their courses" (Lomax 1976:49).

The idea of placing of teacher education within the established universities has been strongly criticised, however, as "...preoccupations with university status,

standards and academic configurations" (McConnell & Fry 1972: 18). Those who are 'inside the club' wish to maintain the university pattern, while those 'outside' strive for membership. The supposed advantage of communion with other students has been perceived as a 19th century Oxbridge myth, that what matters is who you meet, rather than what you learn (Bell & Youngson 1973:113). It can hardly be held that the predominantly non-residential urban universities in South Africa afford the student the opportunity to really rub shoulders with students in other facilities who are destined for careers other than teaching, in the way that Oxford or Cambridge would enable this to happen. The formative value of a residential campus life is in reality not an argument in the South African context, except for the small residential universities such as Rhodes University.

Teacher education will not necessarily flourish within the traditional universities, although academic standards *per se* would probably rise. It is not true to say that only the most intelligent and academically outstanding students will make good teachers. Such an elitist approach is not congruent with a mass profession. Teacher education would not fit the university template in that it is 'mission oriented' rather than 'discipline oriented' (Ashby in McConnell & Fry 1972:13). Nor is university education for teachers necessarily superior. In America, teachers are prepared in various institutions and no evidence has emerged to show that any one kind of institution is better than the others for training a teacher.

One of the problems in trying to fit teacher education into a conventional university mould is the nature of the course to be taken. A conventional university judges a degree in terms of the university template of a degree. A teaching degree can be seen, within a university, as being inferior in quality when compared with the course requirements of a standard university degree. Following the James Report proposals for a BA (Ed), this degree was denounced as "...sub-standard, degraded, debased or little better than a technical qualification " (McConnell & Fry 1972:16). It was held that the BA (Ed) would have little credibility and standing outside the profession and holders of such a degree would be inferior to possessors of 'real degrees' within the same profession. Such criticisims may be valid from a fundamental university perspective, but the question is whether such a degree represents a coherent educational programme and whether it is valid in terms of its intention to turn out a well educated and trained professional teacher. The advantage of a collegiate university is that all teachers will have an equivalent degree which will find its place within the profession. It is held in this work that an able student should be able to be admitted to a professional qualification of degree status, relevant to the end of becoming a teacher, and judged on its own criteria rather than academic university criteria, which serve a different, but laudable, end. A false prestige is no advantage to the teaching profession or teachers, especially if the qualification is not entirely suited to the professional task at hand.

A number of the reasons given for placing teacher education within a conventional university ethos is predicated upon suppositions of what a college is, or is not. Some of these assumptions need to be challenged critically. Colleges in the past may have been too confined, exclusive, specialised and parochial. It is held, however, that a college can evolve, given the right circumstances, to provide for personal development, a sound scientific training in the subjects to be taught and a wide, and liberal, view of life, as indeed many have. Contact with a cultural environment is not excluded on college campuses and a collegiate validating body would require that the extramural facilities and initiatives on campus should be reviewed and taken into account when assessing courses. Colleges can aspire to sound academic standards, although this will not be the exclusive and overriding aim of a college of education.

Contact with research is not excluded in colleges, especially when research incorporates sound scholarship. Gericke (1969:110-111) held that:

> "The present system of training at the provincial colleges is not conducive to scientific research either; nor is an institution that is not on a level with an 'academy' equipped for research. In fact, to be equipped for research an institution must also have students for advanced degrees, as at the universities".

It is central to the collegiate concept that appropriate research in education and matters affecting the school, the pupil and teaching should be promoted and required for course validation. The upgrading of colleges over a reasonable time period is considered more appropriate to

sound teacher education than moving teacher training into the established universities or placing the emphasis, initially at least, on post-graduate research.

If colleges are upgraded and incorporated in a collegiate fashion, teacher education would be brought into line with other professional education. The schism between primary and secondary teacher training will be breached in time and the stigma of supposedly superior, albeit possibly less appropriate, qualifications would diminish.

The claim that if teacher education is situated in traditional universities, a better calibre of students will be drawn to teaching is debatable. The number of teachers required makes this claim tenuous. A prospective teacher does not always enter teaching purely because of an academic yearning. She is more likely to cite factors such as caring for children, passing on knowledge or shaping the future generation. Once in training, an academic base to the training can be palatable and effective, as it relates directly to the professional training. The status of the academic teaching degree could be acceptable, given that it is unlikely to equate with the high powered medical and engineering degrees, but is likely to be equivalent to degrees in the arts, social sciences and humanities.

The claim that college courses are too crowded (Niven 1974: 376) and that more opportunity is required for reading, discussing and reflecting have a basis in comparison with, say, an arts degree. However, all professional education and

training courses tend to be crowded and 'bitty', *vide* professional degrees in medicine and law.

That universities are key institutions which therefore should take the lead in all education is a questionable assertion. Universities are not necessarily authoritative in primary education matters. To then assert in the light of this contention that teacher education should be situated in the established university fold is a tenuous argument indeed. It is rather felt that a collegiate university would, in time, take its rightful place within the sisterhood of universities, as a key institution in education. The collegiate university concept is clearly predicated on inter-university liaison and coordination. The conventional university sector would be well represented in the collegiate and college structures nationally, regionally and in local college councils and senates.

7.9.2 UNIVERSITY/COLLEGE LIAISON

A compromise suggestion has been the incorporation of colleges into the university sphere in an association of colleges with universities, requiring the colleges to work closely with universities or under the aegis of universities. The claimed advantages of such a liaison include the raising of academic standards, the support and advice which will be gleaned from the university representatives in the liaison forums, and contact between the staff and students of the university and the college. University connections would, it is held, elevate the status

of the colleges, including the status of their staff, students and courses. A greater independence from Education Departments would, it is felt, ensure higher academic and professional standards, thereby raising the prestige of the teaching profession.

These suppositions have been challenged. Markus (1985:7) claims that the link between different higher education institutions will achieve "... only a bureaucratic semblance of shared values and shared dialogue". Le Roux (in Freer & Randall 1983:51) queries whether cooperation can ever be achieved statutorily. McConnell & Fry (1972:15) typify this process of association as an elitist attitude of university members and a yearning by colleges to be associated with it. Clarke & Marker (in Freer & Randall 1983:69-70) describe such an association as "...a bizarre disjunction between assigned functions, authority and responsibility".

Indeed the conflict of aims is a major concern in the university/college liaison model. A conflict of aims is likely because the ethos of a monotechnic college is likely to be quite different from the climate in a polytechnic institution such as a university. When two different kinds of institutions of higher education with different objectives are juxtaposed, goal conflict is likely to result. For example, univesities are concerned with academic standards, whilst colleges are concerned with producing competent and professional teachers. In the process the university is likely to co-opt the college mission by imposing their own mission. Colleges are likely to become

subordinated and subservient in the face of the powerful university imperialism. In any joint selection of staff, colleges would look to qualifications and teaching experience, whereas universities usually appoint on criteria heavily biased in favour of the academic record of the applicant. Van Wyk de Vries (in Freer & Randall 1983:70) holds that:

> "By law the structures of the university and the college are constitutionally separate entities and cannot be merged".

In university validation of teacher education courses, problems may also occur, as universities are likely to apply their own well tested and firmly held standards to college course arrangements, which may not be appropriate. Mc Connell & Fry (1972:22) fear the consequence will be to deprive the teaching qualification of its impetus to innovation and diversifiction. Barrett (in Boyce 1980:145) has highlighted the problem of accreditation of courses, which are contrived to be identical in aim and content to those of the university in order to gain recognition, but which thereby become less relevant for teaching purposes because of trying to satisfy university requirements. The differences between colleges of education and universities as institutions of higher education have been tabulated by Boyce (in Behr 1980:141):

Colleges of Education	Universities
Single purpose i.e. a unity of purpose	Diversification of programmes

Colleges of Education	Universities
Institutional coherence	Students exposed to many points of view
Students committed to teaching only admitted	Students may have a lower level of commitment to the teaching profession - less sense of direction
Student's studies and experience geared to work of teacher	Wider interests and more critical attitudes encouraged
Close links with schools	Courses more theoretically based
Emphasis on relating theory to practice. Professional competence a priority	Academic standards in major disciplines important
Limited resources e.g. for research	Adequate resources; research encouraged
Consensus of points of view - commitment to definite goal	Conflict and uncertainty about controversial issues

Table 22 - The differences between colleges of education and universities as institutions of higher education

Concern has been expressed that placing colleges in association with universities will be an imposition on the universities. Experience in England has shown that the universities tend to either show too little interest in the colleges, or tend to dominate the colleges by being overly academic and theoretical. The colleges become an administrative and financial burden and a strain on the academic staff, who would rather devote time to their own research and who have little interest in professional practice, especially when it is associated with teacher education which is held in low esteem by universities because of the nature of the university.

Any attempt to merge college and university structures is likely to be problematic. University autonomy could be affected in the admission of teachers, which is based on professional selection criteria, and which is dictated to some extent by Departments of Education who fund the colleges and the student loans. Then the colleges represent a numerically large responsibility for the universities to handle in terms of administrative processes (such as registration) and academic requirements (such as examination moderation).

One of the prime impetuses for university/college liaison initiatives has been the enhanced status and stature for colleges which will ostensibly occur from the association. Yet 'status from association' is a tenuous concept. By analogy, the possibility of a highly respected father conferring respect and standing on his children,

demonstrates the fallacy of this idea. To be really respected in their own right, the children will have to grow up and establish their own basis to be respected and esteemed. Similarly, colleges of education must come of age and establish their own mature identity and status. The heritage of being part of the higher education sector will help, but it must be done in a unique way and not by huddling under a parental university wing or claiming rights of patronage. To seek status *via* association is to acknowledge a lack of intrinsic status. Finding their own place in the market of higher education institutions, with unique services, is what the collegiate concept allows the colleges to achieve. It is interesting to note that in America, where teacher education became a university responsibility, Howsam (in Freer & Randall 1983:69) noted that:

> "The improvement in teacher education and the teaching profession expected from the new relationship has not occurred".

In the light of the arguments above, the improvement should perhaps not have even been expected. The thesis being presented here is that teacher education is correctly placed in colleges of education, and that the colleges should be enabled to develop and expand the quality of their service on a corporate and coordinated basis.

The situation of teacher education in colleges of eduction will now be considered.

7.9.3 COLLEGE-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

Over the years there has been a groundswell of opinion that universities are not suited to teacher education, whereas colleges of education are ideally suited and should be developed to realise their mission more fully. These contentions will be considered.

It is queried whether a university is best designed to provide vocational and professional expertise. The concerns of the university are the pursuit of truth, research and academic disciplines and these are pursued for their intrinsic interest and social benefit. The qualities required of a teacher cannot be acquired solely in an intellectual way. The culture of a university is antipathetic to the culture required for teacher education. A university is a large monolithic institution which is not geared to offering the pastoral care necessary to the cultivation of the professional qualities required of a teacher. Universities do not have a comprehensive view of schooling education, nor the practical involvement and expertise in schooling educational matters, apart from within the Faculty of Education at the university.

The aim of university lecturers is to produce doctorates, not teachers. Their preoccupation with academic standards is not conducive to optimal professional preparation. Academic and research concerns are a primary aim of universities, whereas they are an aspect, albeit an important aspect, of professional teacher preparation. University academic

pursuits are discipline-based, whereas in teacher education an integration of knowledge between disciplines is required, which is applicable in practice. Goldhamer (1977:12) holds that:

> "Skill building and professional development programmes are considered low level academic enterprises which run counter to the intellectual traditions of the university. They are viewed as apprenticeship in nature and of doubtful validity within the structure of the university".

Thus professors of education, in seeking to gain a greater acceptability among their academic colleagues, submerge the elements essential to skill building and professional development programmes in favour of more academic requirements. The B Ed degree has been criticised for not being a professional degree, and has been described as an "...academic degree with professional trimmings" (Alexander 1984:107). This is because the depth of study of an academic subject, untrammelled by professional methodology, provided the only measure of 'degreeworthiness' that university academics could recognise, or that they felt competent to judge. The research orientation of the university has likewise led to a convoluted reward system, where lecturers in education have been rewarded for irrelevant, albeit impressive, credentials in the form of research degrees and publications, rather than for what they accomplish in teacher education.

Schools of Education have been restrained within universities in terms of resource allocation. Ducharme (1985: 8) holds that teacher education has received the lowest level of support of all the programmes offered in

higher education, because the bulk of the resource allocation goes to the prestigious faculties or schools. For this reason, teacher eduation would be better off in a corporate lobby looking after its own resourcing requirements, rather than having to compete from a position of weakness against powerful and prestigious sectors within the universities. Gore holds that schools and Departments of Education cannot achieve their essential autonomy as long as they reside within the traditional institutions of education, the universities.

It is held that colleges of education are the appropriate institutions for teacher preparation. Colleges have established and developed an identity of purpose which gives them a respected place in the educational hierarchy. In 1931, the Director of Education in the Orange Free State (in Niven 1974:198) held at that early stage in the development of colleges of education, that:

> "...a training college with its own teaching atmosphere, is much more effective...to equip primary teachers".

Willey, the Chairman of a Select Committee in the House of Commons on Teacher Training (in Cook 1973:65) highlighted the marked success of teachers in the schools who were educated in the colleges and held that:

> "...whatever the disadvantages of the colleges, there is something in a college of education which is more relevant to teaching in the schools and more successful in providing results in the schools".

The emphasis in the colleges on professional standards, rather than purely academic standards, accounts for these kinds of perceptions. Lomax (1976:40) commented on:

> "...the almost tangible sense of purpose within the institution (i.e. college), the way in which all the resources in all their departments were focussed upon the needs of the schools and school children".

It is difficult to retain this benefit in a very large institution, such as a university, which is only marginally concerned with teacher education. Colleges relate more readily with the teaching profession in that they invove the teachers as partners, an aspect which is an important component of the college mission. Colleges can accommodate all the phases of teaching from the pre-primary to the secondary, so that the teachers in training can associate together. This is valuable in that it emphasises, and enables, a unity in the educational processes, which are unaffected by contrived divisions within and between schools. Schooling can most effectively be handled holistically within a college environment, which is perhaps best when prosecuted as a unitary pursuit in a monotechnic college.

Haberman (1971:133-139) perceives the advantages of college-based education as being the closer contact with the schools, the relatedness of the academic disciplines specifically to the primary and secondary schools, an easier relationship between theory and practice, the fact that colleges are more accountable for the performance of their graduates, an easy link to in-service education and easier

links with the community and the profession. Naturally such aspects are a matter of degree, as universities can claim some involvement in these areas, but the college mission makes them more central to the college thrust and emphasis.

Colleges of education are institutions with their own distinctive professional culture and unique social structure. They have a particular mission, which differs from that of other institutions of higher education, and they have evolved to meet their specific ends of achieving quality teacher education and teacher training. Embling (1974:61) holds that colleges ought to represent something different "...in purpose, content, methodology and style". The Pretorius Commission (1951:282) referred to teacher preparation engendering qualities required of a teacher which cannot be acquired in an intellectual way and which have no necessary connection with university standards at all and which are apt not to receive due recognition and encouragement in an academic atmosphere, whereas these qualities would be adequately safeguarded in the colleges. Part of this process is made possible by the pastoral care possibilities in colleges, which encourages the cultivation of the required professional qualities. Colleges of education are more suitably staffed and equipped to provide the type of training needed, unlike the university's Departments of Education which tend to look upon teacher education as a discipline rather than a means of providing professional expertise (Bell & Youngson 1973:109).

Colleges are dedicated institutions in that their mission is circumscribed by the society and culture surrounding them. Colleges are conservative institutions in that they conserve the core knowledge, attitudes and values of their society and culture and pass these on to the next generation. This does not preclude change and innovation. Indeed change and innovation are some of the qualities which must be passed on and must be demonstrated in the college functioning, but their mandate is not to follow the truth no matter where it leads or irrespective of certain societal constraints. In South Africa, the association of schooling and education with political change has clearly demonstrated the dangers of schooling becoming aligned with political and societal change, and the damage to the education of the young in the process has been endemic. Colleges and schools in western societies are not on the cutting edge of change, unlike universities. They should be non-aligned in current processes, but this does not preclude them from forming opinions on current matters and pronouncing these opinions, but not on a sectional basis. In South African terms, colleges should be deeply involved in open non-racial schooling initiatives and moving towards the creation of a viable 'new South Africa', but they should not take up the cudgels for a particular sectional interest.

This political and social neutrality does not preclude colleges from being degree-awarding institutions. The Scottish University Commission of 1893 (in Lomax 1976:44) reported that the Scottish Education Department was

reluctant "...to encourage these notoriously independent bodies, the universities, to play any part in teacher training". To this day teacher preparation in Scotland, with one notable exception, is conducted in colleges of education, yet teaching is a degreed profession in Scotland. Similarly Bibby (1975:20) holds that if Cardinal Newman were to return to England today, it would be in the better colleges of education that he would most nearly recognise his idea of a university. Taylor (in Butcher & Rudd 1972: 339) sees the crucial factor in determining the historical value of the colleges of education as:

> "...their need to secure a cognitive and affective identity with the values associated with teachers in elementary schools rather than in merely inculcating an intellectual recognition of their legitimacy".

Colleges are seen as the appropriate institutions for teacher preparation. Their mission is intellectual and academic, yet it is so much more in its professional and societal scope.

The specific and appropriate mission of colleges has been described by various scholars.

(i) Gericke (in le Roux 1980:99-100) stated:

> " The college of education does have an identity of its own. While the university is subject-centric - concerned with the disinterested pursuit of truth - the college of education is professionally oriented and student-centric. Teaching is at a moderate tempo, class groups are small, methods are sometimes remedial and therapeutic - the whole approach is directed towards exploiting the potential of the students. Because of this student-centric approach, colleges of education are able - over a three to four year period - to raise their students to an acceptable academic level and to

a very proficient professional level. The intention is to attain the academc and professional goal in a personalised individualised manner".

(ii) Bibby (1975:26) holds that:

> "... colleges of education are a special kind of higher education institution. They are primarily concerned not just with teaching, but with the analysis of teaching, with discovering the principles which underlie the techniques of teaching, of determining the best ways of conveying these principles to our students and of providing them with opportunities to apply the principles in a variety of situations of school practice...This interpenetration of theory and practice is not a once-for-all, but a continuing process, which should suffuse the whole college course of a prospective teacher. That is why concurrent training is superior to consecutive training. That is why it is absolutely essential that, in teacher education,the professional aspects should be in the same hands as the academic aspects".

(iii) Alexander (1984:18) saw the culture of teacher education as the value of the college, which involves:

> "...a concern for the personal development of the students, an emphasis on pastoral care, the residential tradition, small group teaching, an awareness of the social and moral responsibilities of teachers, a playing down of the importance of subjects in favour of a child-centered, problem focussed approach, an anxiety about the dangers of academism coupled with fears about the limitations of over-emphasising the relevance of the practical, the valued place of personal relations, and the quality of life that ranks sincerity, integrity and a degree of moral seriousness above training in critical analysis or a commitment to social change".

These perspectives forcefully demonstrate the distinct and unique mission of colleges of education, where academic values are tempered by the traditional person-centered values so appropriate to the profession of teaching. In a similar vein, the college of education courses are distinctive and particularly designed with teaching in mind.

The content of a BEd (or B Prim Ed) degree should be different as it is meant for a different end. There is no sense in prospective teachers spending the bulk of their time in classes intended for BA or BSc students. Bassey (in Proctor 1987:41) found in researching this matter, that classroom-oriented courses gave the best preparation for teaching in primary schools. Bibby (1975:21) asserted that concurrent training was unambiguously superior to consecutive training. Yet the professional bias in the training does not preclude a rigourously academic component, albeit slightly different in content and nature. Le Roux (in Freer & Randall 1983:66) holds that:

> "It will be necessary to accept that although college courses might be different in nature, they can be as academically rigorous as traditional university courses".

Colleges are able to offer a different kind of course to accommodate subjects which are taught in schools, but not offered in universities, such as technika, typing and handicrafts. Such courses may be offered on a professional curriculum studies basis, or at a degree level if the content and nature of the course warrants it.

The arguments above point to the need to gain a sufficient level of intellectual independance from the academic tradition. One of the needs that this acknowledges is the closer contact between colleges of education and the State in the form of ongoing contact and liaison with the administrative Departments of Eduction. Boyce's contention (1980:156) that "...complete autonomy for colleges of

education is unattainable within the framework of provincial administration..." is implicit in the proposed collegiate model. So is Bibby's assertion that "...the professional preparation of teachers is far too important a thing to be sacrificed on the altar of administrative neatness". But the employing authorities, the provincial, independent state and homeland departments, are important stakeholders in teacher preparation.

Universities are not geared to ensuring that the national education policy is properly executed. Academic freedom and university autonomy mean that the universities are reasonably immune to pressures and cannot easily be called to account in such matters. Although the Departments have had to accept that the universities set their own courses and admit students as they see fit, there has been concern at times over matters such as the over-production of teachers, the narrow academic specialisation of courses and the theoretical bias in the content of these courses. Universities are not concerned with providing courses in certain scarce subjects or making sure that there are sufficient teachers in the scarce subjects. Because a university's first allegiance is to academic standards, it does not feel compelled to drop its admission criteria to ensure sufficient teachers in areas of short supply, nor to give a student the benefit of the doubt in a pass/fail decision in the hope that, with special assistance and encouragement, he will develop and mature into an acceptable student, and ultimately, teacher. Nor does the university

sector ensure a reasonably uniform teacher product. In spite of the external examiner system, universities are tolerant of variety and differences within a standard band. So universities have differing standards brought about, *inter alia*, by having different courses, curricula, syllabuses and admission requirements.

All these kinds of problems could be handled in a corporate college sector within the collegiate model. The colleges would not be as independent as the universities are from the government, but they would be more independent than they currently are, yet as a sector they could be geared to professional, societal and State ends. Gore (1981:37) has appealled for a new environment in teacher eduction, which discards long cherished commitments and practices, in favour of a collegial environment and meaningful reform. He envisages placing teacher education in a separate environment he describes as a 'professional growth environment' with a collegial ambience. McNair (in Tibble 1971:9) envisages

> "...college autonomy and a development along existing lines, in an association of equals, committed to the discharge of a common task, instead of making such colleges dependent on, or part of, the universities. The colleges are likely to achieve greater prestige if they are judged according to their own objectives rather than by criteria applicable to universities".

The assertion is that the colleges of education are a large, creative and influential sector of higher education with the will and capacity to develop a broader role (Tibble 1971: 13). There is a need to create a new awareness of each sector of higher education as a national entity with its own

distinctive and vital functions and its own educational autonomy within the national system, and this applies fully to the college sector. Colleges can only gain status by fulfilling their own particular mission and not by basking in the reflected glory of the university. The Robbins Committee conceived of the idea of:

> "...a national system of higher education within which individual achievement would be freed from the ascriptive characteristics of particular institutions and where distinctions between institutions should be genuine and based on the nature of the work done and the organisation appropriate to it, rather than upon adventitious grounds, whether historical or social, which are wholly alien to the spirit that should inform higher education" (in Tibble 1971:10).

In this process the needs of the future should be met, according to Robbins, by developing the present types of institutions. The colleges should be the sole agencies of teacher training according to the Scottish tradition (Lomax 1976:44), responsible for all the courses, for staff appointments and admissions, and for all the college work, with the proviso that they abide by the regulations of Parliament and within the limits of finances available. The collegiate model is predicated upon such a belief. The James Report contended (in le Roux 1980:194) that:

> "For too long the colleges of education have been treated as the junior partners in the system of higher education. It is hoped that the implementation of this (i.e. James) Report would do much to encourage both the profession and the colleges to move forward to a new degree of independence and self determination".

It is the contention in this research thesis that the colleges of education in South Africa are in the same position today. It is felt that many of the colleges now,

and within a corporate development in the future, will possess the skills, facilities and experience to offer courses of degree standard.

7.10 MONOTECHNICISM

One of the arguments used against college-based teacher education, in preference for university-based teacher education, is the monotechnic nature of the colleges of education. The argument presented is that the students will benefit from the presence of a mixture of academic disciplines. The query extends to asking whether a single purpose college should be permitted to offer degree-level courses. Lomax (1976:49) refers to the perceived problem of monotechnic colleges as:

> "...a desire to move away from the existence of institutions primarily concerned with students, mostly female, who have come recently from schools, and who will be returning there on completion of their course".

Whether this accurately reflects the current position is highly debatable. Basically, this kind of position represents a university elitism based on a collegiate residential university campus model. That student teachers are closeted on a Victorian campus with no lifting of their vision beyond schooling, is a false perception in the writer's view. Even if there is some basis in such a view, and this is challenged, it doesn't necessarily mean that colleges must become polytechnic in nature. Bibby (1975:25) has pointed out that in the USA, the teachers' training colleges changed to liberal arts colleges, thereby becoming colleges that offered a wide variety of courses. The result

was that "...the decline in professional teacher education has been quite disastrous..." and attempts are being made to re-establish these colleges. He feels that the training of high quality teachers should be the very *raison d etre* of any teacher training institution. Harland and Gibbs (1987: 11) concur that colleges should:

> "...remain monotechnic, reject forms of diversification, concentrate their energies and resources in the area where they have developed their expertise (i.e. teacher education) and thereby safeguard a genuine claim to institutional distinctiveness...(which) would avoid increasing the vulnerability of colleges by reducing direct competition with universities and polytechnics..."

Niven (1974:198) refers to the need to equip primary teachers properly during their training and avers that a college, with its own teaching atmosphere, is much more effective than the busy life of a university. Bibby holds that:

> "There is in principle (nothing) wrong about prospective teachers being trained in institutions especially devoted to that end. Nobody ever seems to doubt that doctors should be trained in medical schools or architects in schools of architecture: it is apparently only in the case of teaching that there is something wicked about buckling right down to professional preparation".

One of the reasons for promoting a polytechnic institution is the supposed value of leaving the choice of career open, so that the option to become a teacher, or not to become a teacher, remains open as late in training as possible. Why this should be so for teaching, when it is not so for other professional careers, is not specified. Bibby declares:

> "I am not persuaded that our ideal should be a system of higher education almost exclusively populated by people who have no idea what they want in life".

Indeed it is not unknown for prospective teachers studying in a polytechnic institution to be lured into other non-teaching occupational pursuits because an initial commitment had not been made to a teaching course. It is also true that if a teacher wishes to leave teaching, there are many careers open to him, besides the very specialist occupations. On the other hand if a prospective teacher is not suitable for or capable of teaching training, it is an advantage to exclude him early in his training. The Newson Report of 1963 (in Maclure 1979:285) promotes the idea of training in colleges, including the nature of the course of training:

> "We have implied...that the teachers will be receiving their training in training colleges...because we are convinced that the kind of training the colleges offer, that is the concurrent course in which the personal higher education of the student is combined with pedagogic studies, is likely to provide the most suitable professional preparation for teaching most of the pupils with whom we are concerned (i.e. ages 13 - 16; average or less than average ability)".

The universities do not integrate the academic and professional aspects of teacher preparation, as happens in the colleges of education. Because of the lack of unity amongst the university staff, the training is better typified as a 'parallel' model than a 'concurrent' model. A university consists of a loose confederation of highly autonomous departments, whereas colleges represent a team approach (Hanlon in le Roux 1980:156).

In contradiction to the often spurious claims that teacher education should be conducted in a polytechnic and multidisciplined environment, some claim (Cohen 1985:175)

that the university is not the appropriate place for conducting professional education, as universities focus on theories of practice as opposed to the capacity to apply knowledge and theory. University assessment is based upon the ability to know and discuss, rather than the ability to perceive what is necessary and to act. The assumption in this approach is that to know about something means that one can do it in practice. A knowledge base is of central importance, but to know about fine literature is not necessarily to know how to write a classical work. To know about the theory of teaching is not to be a good teacher. Cohen (1985:181) states his case as follows:

> "The effects of the all pervasive ethos of the university are far reaching in professional education. The demand for academic respectability changes the content and the method. The object of the training, the production of skilled effective professional workers recedes, and the training of critical, knowledgeable scholars takes precedence. Models and values acquired in higher education become part of the intellectual luggage of the new professional. Models of the primacy of the rational and intellectual are provided, with a consequent devaluation of feelings and emotions (Douglas 1983) and disregard for empathetic imagination (Klein 1984)".

It is interesting to note that college students typically represent between a quarter and a third of the students in higher education. With part time upgrading in South Africa, this percentage may well be even higher. This represents a significant sector, especially if it interacts in a corporate manner and creates appropriate links with the traditional university sector, as contained in the collegiate model. Suggestions of insularity in the college sector need not necessarily be true and the interaction

could be appropriate to the end of sound teacher preparation.

7.11 THE NATURE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The preparation of teachers is a form of professional education. The nature of professional education is polemical and has been the subject of consideration and disputation concerning teacher education. For this reason aspects of the professional education debate will be considered as they illuminate teacher education.

Professional education is not pure education *per se*. It involves a special subculture incorporating formal instruction, customs and behaviour patterns. Shein (1972:23) perceives professional knowledge as consisting of three elements:

(i) an underlying discipline, or basic science component, upon which the practice rests or from which it develops;

(ii) an applied science component from which many of the diagnostic procedures and problem solutions are derived; and

(iii) a skills and attitudinal component that concerns the actual performance of services, using the underlying basic knowledge and applied knowledge.

Much of the misunderstanding and dispute over professional education is occasioned by ignoring the presence of one of

these factors in the debate, especially the applied knowledge component, and the vaunting of the importance of one aspect *vis-a-vis* the others. Typically the importance of the knowledge component is over-emphasized and the importance of the practical/skills component is understated.

Profession education has been defined by Renshaw (in Nguntombi 1984:266) as follows:

> "Essentially the idea of 'professional study' implies a partnership between a body of theoretical knowledge and the practical skills which are needed for achieving competence in a particular profession. The development of these critical skills, acquired through training, must be informed by theoretical knowledge gained through academic study, otherwise a student is unlikely to build up the authority, autonomy and breadth of understanding which are so fundamental to the making of responsible professional judgements. Professional study is not limited to the development of technical competence in a narrow, specific task, for the partnership between theoretical and practical knowledge is central to the idea of initiating students into a profession, rather than training them for a trade or occupation".

Central to any consideration of professional preparation is the relationship between theory and practice. The distinction is between learning about teaching and becoming a teacher. University based professional education tends to concentrate on knowledge and understanding, rather than upon the mere mastery of techniques. The theoretical grounds of professional education are emphasized as it is held that a fundamental body of scholarly knowledge should be the core of professional education. The theory should not be abstract knowledge *per se*; it should stem from and illuminate the practice ideally. Barnett, Becker & Cork (1987:54) feel that it is "...crucial that theory should be generated from, and

should critically inform, practice." Cohen (1985:177) places the emphasis more on the theoretical side:

> " The education and training of professionals concentrates on developing the theoretical and knowledge base of that profession and to a lesser extent the skills with which the profession performs its tasks".

He stresses the central importance of the knowledge base of the professions, and the universities in transmitting this knowledge base and producing new knowledge. The problem is that the theory inevitably exists on the level of abstraction, whereas practice requires immediate knowledge of the particular, and a profession is a matter of practice and application. The Porker Committee in 1961 (in Turner & Rushton 1976:12) held that it was only in the practical situation that it was possible to acquire the skills needed for practice. Whether this is an appropriate pursuit for a university is debatable. Whitehead (in Brubacher 1977:96) holds that:

> "In the process of learning, there should be present, in some sense or other, a subordinate activity of application. In fact the applications are part of the knowledge. For the very meaning of things known is wrapped up in their relationships beyond themselves. Thus unapplied knowledge is knowledge shorn of its meaning. The careful shielding of a university from the activities of the world around us is the best way to chill interest and defeat progress. Celibacy does not suit a university. It must mate with action".

A distinction is made between education and training. Training implies teaching techniques that can be applied to similar circumstances, which do not vary greatly. Training is more a form of repetitious modelling through successive approximations. Technicians use defined rules, rather than

theories, for applying remedies and highly developed skills to familiar circumstances. The nature of training implies that if the problem extends beyond these rules, the technician will not know what to do with any degree of certainty (Case, Lanier & Mishel 1986:42).

Professional education, on the other hand, emphasises analytical experiences in an effort to have practitioners who can combine various bodies of knowledge into applications that meet changing or unique circumstances, and the professional practitioner's behaviour, arising from his education, is characterised by a drive to know why things are as they are. He is driven by a passion to know more in order to improve existing conditions.

The outcome of professional preparation is performance and a concern for competency. Trow (1987:282) notes that the authority of the modern workplace is increasingly based on claims to technical competence, linked to education. Performance is based on the internalisation of an idea and is characterised by:

(i) a mastery of theoretical knowledge in the form of a system of applied content, skills and principles; and

(ii) the capacity to solve problems, based on theoretical knowledge, that arise in the vital affairs of men, and which require insight, skill and knowledge (Houle 1981:40-43).

However, professional preparation includes modelling in part, with the modelling building on the knowledge, theory, principles and analytical clinical experiences. One cannot assume that, if a student knows something and is able to speak or write about it, this means he can perceive and act upon it. The relationship between 'knowing that' and 'knowing how' is far from simple, yet it is often assumed that one follows naturally from the other. Similarly, in teacher parlance, Gassett (translated by Nostrand 1946:61) pointed out that training a teacher of history is not the same as turning out a historian.

It is a truism to claim that better educated employers ought to have higher analytical skills, to be able to communicate better, to have more imagination and creativity and to be more capable of innovation (Williams & Blackstone 1983:39). Yet Gore (1981:38) holds that there is inevitably an element of craft within a profession:

> "There is no vocation, or profession, which is not to a considerable extent craft-like. Practitioners cannot learn to practice merely by reading books, listening to erudite lectures, participating in heady discussion, nor for that matter even by conducting scholarly inquiry. They learn to practice largely by practising. The guidance of a master craftsman can contribute substantially to the new teacher's induction to practice, in fact it is indispensable. Nor is the master-apprentice relationship necessarily a non-intellectual enterprise. To the contrary, the dialogue between master and novice, by documenting and giving expression to experience, can enhance the language of pedagogy, and thereby inform practice more intelligently".

The nature of professional education and training may be perceived as an amalgam of liberal and vocational pursuits. Erring too heavily on one side or other is to diminish the

professional preparation. Whitehead perceived in 1926 (in Houle 1981:x) that the fixed person for the fixed duties, who in an older society was such a godsend, was likely to be a public danger in the future. Dewey (in Kayson 1973:492) argued for a vocationally centred liberal eduation, to avoid the purely liberal education from becoming "... effete and elitist... It is held that it is not the vocation that has become liberalised, but the liberation that has become vocationalised".

It is commonly held today that institutions of higher education should be partly instrumental in nature, as the modern university exists, in part, to serve society. This incorporates the meaning that a significant part of the service offered by a university may be to enrich the intellectual, cultural and moral life of the society, in addition to the more vocational pursuits. A university can be, at the same time, concerned with a narrow scope of training for a particular job, as well as with the quality of life of the community, within which work forms a major component. A university can be committed to vocational aspects without assuming an entirely instrumental view of learning however. Part of the function of a university is to extend the student rather than merely to pass on skills and techniques.

In the light of the above perspectives, the aims of professional education need to be considered. The aim of professional education may be perceived of as producing competent practitioners, who conduct a good practice based

on a sound theory, with correct attitudes developed in a process of professional socialisation, including the acquisition of a professional ideology and sound moral values, the appropriate social skills, and an understanding predicated on a critical awareness (Jarvis 1983:31). The foundation should consist of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes, including the traditional professional qualities of care, compassion and dedication. An ability should be developed to weigh possibilities and to devise a planned action responsive to the clients' (i.e. pupils) personal needs.

Professional training includes training for uncertainty, so that the practitioner has the emotional and attitudinal resources to act with self-confidence, even when he is not certain of the answer, and to take responsibility for these important decisions based on partial information. A professional must be willing to make decisions involving high risk at times, whilst maintaining the ability to inspire confidence in the client even when he is uncertain (Shein 1972:23).

Maurice, in 1829, distinguished a trade from a profession, in that the latter dealt primarily with men as men. Consequently professional understanding must extend within the total human and social setting. The Robbins Committee (in Scott 1984:125) perceived the objective of higher education as follows:

> "While emphasising that there is no betrayal of values when institutions of higher education teach what will

> be of some practical use, we must postulate that what is taught should be taught in such a way as to promote the general powers of the mind. The aim should be not to produce mere specialists but rather cultivated men and woman. And it is the distinguishing characteristic of a healthy higher education that, even where it is concerned with practical techniques, it imparts them on a plane of generality that makes possible their application to many problems - to find the one in the many, the general characteristic in the collection of particulars. It is this that the world of affairs demands of the world of learning ".

Professional education should not leave to chance the cultivation of attributes that make a professional fit to assume the trusteeship, with which society entrusts him. It should engender certain allegiances, discipline, methods of thought and ethical perspectives. The focus should be on the individual student and seek to broaden his human capacities, including the mental, moral and emotional capacities. Professional preparation, when viewed in this light, cannot stop short of performance. Proof is needed as to what the student is like, *qua* person, in practice, and never more so than for teachers where the pupils are relatively powerless as consumers of schooling. The Indian University Commission (1949:175) perceived the foundations of professional education as extending far beyond mere technical skills, to include a sense of social responsibility, an appreciation of social and human values and relationships, and a disciplined power to see realities without prejudice or blind commitment.

Thus it is evident that like all educational processes, professional education must have a generalised educative aim of the maximum development of the intellectual and emotional potential of the individual (Turner & Rushton 1976:27). It

must be concerned with the enlargement of experience, the stretching of the mind and the developing of the imagination through the exercise of intelligence and judgement. Professional education goes beyond the acquisition of professional habits, to the cultivation of the skills and judgements necessary to the profession and an ability to relate specific professional knowledge to the totality of affairs.

The required outcomes of general professional education range from being able to communicate effectively, to analyse situations and issues, to act within considered ethical parameters and to practice according to sound technical knowledge. A central part of the process of professional education involves the providing for self-development, self-realisation and personal fulfilment. Such personal development incorporates the development of critical powers and of the analytical and synthesizing skills of sensitivity and feeling (Lomax 1973:139).

When considering professional teacher education, the above characteristics apply, plus other special requirements which are specifically applicable to teaching. The teacher must be competent both to do the job and to be the 'right' kind of person. His training must be content-centred and context-centred, as his training must be meaningful in terms of employment as a teacher. The one year post-graduate course is rapidly becoming an insufficient period of time for the professional education of teachers, if it ever was a sufficient period of time. Alexander (1984:300) sees a

bifurcating impetus in the development of teacher education *viz.*:

(i) a move towards the raising of the intellectual level in the quest for a graduate profession; and

(ii) the pursuit of professional relevance, which requires greater interaction between teachers, teacher educators, schools and colleges.

The collegiate model is tailor-made for moving towards these two goals. Teacher education programmes have been neglected and professional teacher education needs upgrading and development. In this regard, the university abhorrence of breadth in studies, in favour of specialisation, has not been productive in professional teacher education terms. Williams and Blackstone (1983:39) are aware of the danger of an overly narrow intellectual approach:

> "There is no reason why everything in an undergraduate curriculum should be taught in great depth. Breadth and the ability to integrate different ideas have intellectual as well as practical value".

The role of the university in professional education has been the object of consideration in academic journals. The early universities were involved in educating for professions, such as teaching, but did it in a general way by establishing a broad foundation, stimulating the ability to think and by moulding and cultivating the students. In fact the universities originated as efforts to provide better education for the learned occupations (Houle 1981:20). Yet over time the professional aspects of

university training became superseded by the liberal idea of a disinterested approach to learning, so that JS Mill declared:

> "Universities were not places of professional education. Their object was not to make skilful lawyers or engineers, but capable and cultivated human beings ...What professional men will carry away from a university is not profound knowledge, but that which should direct their use of their professional knowledge, and bring the light of culture to illuminate the technicalities of a special pursuit" (in Phillipson 1983:119).

In this century there has been a substantial development of the university's role as a job broker. Roizens & Jepson (1985:153) hold that:

> "...we in the universities see no inconsistency between a strong commitment to academic discipline and, at the same time, a recognition of the need to think also about the educational requirements of those who are going to enter industry or the professions".

The course of training differs, but this does not necessarily involve a lowering of standards. The emphasis merely moves to studies and research which are basic to a specific pursuit and therefore applied in nature. A distinction is seen between professional preparation and practical training for a profession. The professional university training is on a broader basis and more theoretical in nature. The traditional model has been for professional training to be conducted at a post graduate level, or *via* articles or an internship subsequent to a broader education.

Charlton (in Lewis and Naude 1952:221) perceives university teaching as the pursuance of science in its fullest sense

(i.e. including the arts) in all subjects both academic and professional, where science implies the study of the rational principles underlying each subject, the established relations between subjects, and the ability to generalise and distinguish between matters, as opposed to a craft which is practised with a dullness of routine. Professional university preparation concentrates on the higher crafts, for which academic studies are a preliminary knowledge in that their practice depends upon a previous cultivation of knowledge. In this process, the spirit of science liberalises knowledge by keeping it free of mere habit and utility. The bachelor degree represents an acculturation by a socially acceptable process which is deserving of an upper status for the professional practitioner. This accords with the professional ideology of prescribing a course of professional instruction which consists of a esoteric body of knowledge that sets the professional apart from the layman.

The liaison between the university and the profession may be a source of tension however. The challenge is for the university to serve the profession without being subservient to the profession. Professionals and academics have separate roles, tasks and functions and cooperation between them may prove difficult. What is required is a collaboration between the professional tutors and the professional practitioners. In teacher education, such a complementarity is more typical of the relationship between the college of education and the teaching profession, than with the university as a global institution.

Van Wyk de Vries (in Behr 1984:148) felt that it was necessary for the universities to take congnisance of the needs of the professional councils, but warned of a real danger of the latter dominating the former, thereby resulting in a degeneration of the university's true function, in that the curriculum could become too practical. The function of a professional council was perceived as laying down the training requirements of candidates seeking admission to the profession, as well as the standard to be attained (van Wyk de Vries 1974:159). The professional council should prescribe the curriculum and the qualifications for admission to the profession. Ideally universities should be represented on the professional council without having a decisive say. A danger exists that the professional council may prescribe courses which are overloaded in content, resulting in a higher failure rate, in their pursuit of using an academic qualification as a gate-keeping mechanism to control the intake of members in the profession. The answer to this possible problem is for the professional council to recommend minimum standards in consultation with the universities, whilst leaving the details of the curricula, prescribed syllabuses and rules to the university. In any event, a profession is inevitably going to have a greater or lesser influence and impose its will on standards, curricula and syllabuses to some extent.

The objectives of professional teacher education are complex and legion. A teacher may fulfil roles as diverse as subject specialist, curriculum reformer, community agent and

custodian of cultural values. Dhlomo (1979:41) perceives a competent teacher to be one who:

- commands essential academic and professional knowledge and insight;

- is capable of sound judgement based upon his education and the development of his intellect;

- has mastered the techniques and skills required to accomplish his work;

- has an outlook and philosophy which is not in conflict with the generally accepted principles in the community and society;

- is able to understand and sympathise with others;

- has an ongoing need and capacity for self renewal and development; and,

- has high regard for the teaching profession.

It is evident that teacher preparation encompasses a broad realm of education, training and personal development.

We now turn to a consideration of the standing and status of teacher qualifications.

7.12 TEACHER EDUCATION AND THE DEGREEWORTHINESS OF TEACHING QUALIFICATIONS

The issue is whether all teacher qualifications should be awarded at a degree level. Degrees are awarded for teaching

qualifications in many western countries, including for primary trained teachers, but in South Africa degree status for primary teacher qualifications and the specific education degrees (i.e. for technical teaching subjects) for secondary teachers are the exception rather than the norm.

It is necessary to consider the degreeworthiness of teaching qualifications from first principles, as the collegiate model is designed to be a degree-awarding body for courses completed at colleges of education, and to develop teacher education over time towards conferring degrees to an increasing percentage of teachers in training. In many western countries, including Britain and the United States, teaching is a degreed profession for those currently in training. The Carnegie Commission in 1973 (in Embling 1974: 58) noted that more than one third of the B degrees go to elementary and secondary teachers. Should such innovations occur in South Africa?

The current low status of teaching qualifications is directly attributable to the humble origins of teacher education and the status of schooling. The English experience will be recounted (Dunkin 1987:77-78). Primary schools were perceived to be predominantly for lower and lower middle class children. They were the schools for the 'people' and their teachers were typically of a lower social origin. The grammar schools, or 'learned schools', were entrusted to university trained teachers. The educated minority, which was in power, was privately instructed in the line of its social function and the universities were

for the wealthy elite and not for primary teachers who were perceived to be no more than childminders looking after the children until they were old enough to work. The primary teachers received no specific education, although later they were required to be able to read, write and figure. Gradually 'normal' schools emerged as training institutions, offering courses of a few weeks or months to aspirant teachers, which essentially consisted of training in teaching methods. The admission requirement was the completion of primary school. Gradually the preparation of such teachers evolved to include moral and religious education, the content and skills of the primary school subjects and teaching practice. Any philosophical, or scientific, or such 'learned' instruction was expressly forbidden as such elementary teachers were lower class members who had to educate lower class pupils in respect of religion and the social order, and equip them with the 3 R's needed for work. It was a long and hard fight that eventually saw the inclusion of significantly enriched subjects, such as a general education curriculum, and later the study of psychology and theoretical pedagogy. The normal schools were administered as part of the primary school system, with the status of a lower vocational school. The certificate awarded had a lower secondary status, and did not permit admission to a college or a university. In contrast, the high school teachers received a full college education, which was primarily academic, offering some methodology and teaching skills training.

A similar heritage is discernible in the South African development of teacher education, with rural informal schooling and missionary training leading ultimately to teacher education established in normal schools and eventually the establishment of the colleges. The content of the courses and the length of training has changed and evolved over the years in like manner.

It is interesting to note that the degree was, in its origins, a licence to teach, and it has retained this function down the centuries to the present day. Trow (1987: 284), noting that the move is towards mass higher education and away from elitism, pleads for an opening of the doors of higher education to teachers by declaring that the creation of a learning society starts with the teachers. The Robbins Committee (1963:112) noted that many of the college of education students were fully capable of degree level work and felt that opportunities should be created to provide courses that would suit their needs and interests. Graduate status for all teachers must also be decided however on the intrinsic nature of the course of training in the light of its academic content and its suitability to meet the needs of future teachers. Lomax (1973:141) declares that:

> "The fact that the study of education is now seen as being capable of providing all the intellectual stimulation which traditional disciplines can offer and can at the same time be shown to have direct relevance to the task of teaching has made it possible for the education side of the college course to justify itself on academic as well as professional grounds".

Certainly the introduction of the BEd degree in Britain forced the teacher educators to construct courses

appropriate to teacher preparation, whilst at the same time being worthy of degree status. The course evolved as a degree tailor-made for the specific purpose of teacher education. It contained many of the features of the traditional university degree, but took a year longer to complete in the light of the inclusion of the professional courses and the practical basis.

It is also necessary to appreciate what such a degree represents. Degree status would emphasise the professional credentials of a teacher and the symbolic value of his qualification in terms of social status and personal prestige. Degrees typically represent to employers a wide range of information on qualities such as self-initiative, motivation, perserverance, language abilities and social skills. Degree status for teachers would confirm intrinsic qualities, as well as extrinsic value, concerning the teacher. Degree level education develops a person's broad cultural knowledge and his capability in intellectual leadership, as well as developing a competent professional, able to use principles and theories to analyse, hypothesise and improve practical conditions (Case, Lanier & Miskel 1986:39). Degree status qualifications would represent a recognition that so much of a teacher's value is dependent upon his being well educated, rather than merely vocationally trained (Hewitt 1971:95). The sad truth is that the better colleges are providing a course of preparation that is virtually up to a degree standard, certainly in the

case of the better students, yet the students are only awarded a diploma status qualification.

The reason for this is that the universities have not bought heavily into teacher education, the colleges have firmly established their expertise in teacher education and are not permitted to offer degrees, and the government has not really addressed the degree for teachers issue for over twenty years, since the Gericke Commission. The recent innovation of permitting colleges of education to train teachers for the university's Bachelor of Primary Education degree is a welcome move in the right direction. A collegiate university would meet the requirements of permitting current excellence to achieve more worthy graduate awards, and for upgrading teacher education in a unified and corporate way. Robbins (1963 :113) declared that it would be good for graduates to enter primary schools, in that the schism in the teaching profession between the training of primary teachers and secondary teachers would be breached. Teacher education needs to escape its past.

One reason often cited for the lack of graduate status awards has been the comparability with other degree awards. The BEd in Britain was specifically required to be equivalent with other undergraduate degrees and Harland & Gibbs (1987:14) report that BEd graduates who did not enter teaching fared no worse than other college graduates in obtaining graduate status employment, which is surely an important measure of comparability? Barrett (1980:33) holds that:

> "The aim...is to have teachers who are well educated and well trained...this is increasingly seen as requiring a training which is comparable in some way with university degree courses...comparability can ...be seen in many different ways, in terms of time, content, title, institutional links etc.".

We will now consider the issue of comparability and equivalence in higher education qualifications.

7.13 EQUIVALENCE AND COMPARABILITY OF QUALIFICATIONS

It is necessary to establish some kind of rationale for deciding whether a qualification is degreeworthy and when a diploma has evolved, or been developed sufficiently, to be considered of degree standard. No universal standard exists and any approximations must to some extent be on an arbitrary basis.

Outside recognition of courses is also problematic, as like institutions tend to want to protect their terrain and not acknowledge other institutions, when the conferring of recognition of other courses may undermine their exclusive and elitist product, thereby devaluing it. This has nothing to do with the value of the new course proposed, although ostensibly the argument will be that it has, and everything to do with protecting status and privilege. Nor does society have a valid mechanism for the valuing of higher education qualifications, beyond precedent. Degrees are valued, but society is not geared to deciding on the claim of degrees.

One of the ways of looking at the comparability of qualifications is to see how countries or institutions

equate the qualifications of other countries or institutions *via* a process of nostrification. The terms used are 'comparability' or 'recognition' of courses. The nomenclature 'equivalence' implies total equality between courses, and this does not even occur within the same qualification in the same institution over time. Generally it is found in comparing education courses on a worldwide basis that course content congruence is small (Gumeno & Ibanez 1981:12).

The factors of 'admissibility' or 'acceptability' are more useful when assessing the possibility of transferring from one course to another, especially when transferring to a higher qualification on the basis of a pre-requisite qualification, or for admission to the status of a like qualification when for example one wishes to enter a profession in another country on the basis of foreign qualifications.

Accreditation of courses is another system for equating qualifications, but this is an unwieldly process and it can cause one qualification to be debased in order to achieve the semblance of equivalence with another qualification. An example of this would be to try to gain accreditation for an academic university Mathematics course on the basis of a primary teacher education Mathematics course. These two courses are both valid in their own right and designed to meet different specific needs, but they do not overlap to any great extent in content or process. Any alteration to effect accreditation would devalue the course being altered.

Accreditation implies a comparison, rather than a global assessment of intrinsic and extrinsic worth, on which this discussion is based. The idea behind a universally acceptable template for a teaching degree is not commensurate with a process of imposing an indefensibly rigid pattern on the teaching degree, which should be different in nature and purpose, albeit equal in status and its requirements of the student. There is, in addition, the need to allow for variation within the teaching degrees to be offered, thereby allowing for diversity and local initiative.

The common way of assessing courses is by establishing some kind of valid comparisons based on informed, but unavoidably arbitrary, judgements. The assessment may be a scholarly one, consisting of a detailed consideration of the depth and breadth of the curriculum content and the examination standards, or it may represent a general agreement enabling transferability from one course to another. The test of the Bachelor of Primary Education degree, now being taught on a local college campus, but underwritten by the local university, will be the acceptance of the graduates into post-graduate degree courses nationally and internationally. A general agreement may represent no more than an act of good faith, as transferability may be permitted regardless of the content of the studies. It is interesting to note that the Open University in Britain has a system of credit exemptions. Six credits are required for an ordinary degree, and eight for an honours degree, and one credit is awarded

for each year of recognised higher education study, which may be relatively unrelated to rest of the degree. In some instances, additional subsidiary courses may be required for admission to the new course or to be studied concurrently with it.

At times courses may be considered comparable by inspecting the broad parameters and structures of a qualification, such as entry requirements, duration of course, rough equivalence of curricula and course assessment requirements. This inspection may be piecemeal (e.g. inspecting English I in the one course with English I in the other course) or overall in terms of the number and distribution of 'u' courses (i.e. university equivalent courses, as *per* the Criteria for the recognition of South African qualifications) within a qualification, noting, *inter alia*, the subjects studied, the type of institution, the hours of study and the amount of practical work. This is closer to a validation process, which is a highly evolved manner of assessing the value and level of a qualification for purposes of exchange and reciprocity. This process will be discussed in some detail in chapter eight.

If a template for a degree in teaching were to be instituted on a national basis in South Africa, what kind of criteria would represent valid criteria for assessing its acceptability? Possible criteria would include:

(i) the reputation or standing of the institution, possibly including validation, accreditation and similar recognition indices;

(ii) the content and level of the required courses, and the breakdown of general, specific and applied courses;

(iii) the configuration of the courses;

(iv) course assessment techniques and criteria;

(v) the duration of the course in years, and weeks *per* year;

(vi) intrinsic qualities;

(vii) the objectives of the course;

(viii) the admission requirements;

(ix) the time commitment, possibly broken down the for various aspects of the course, such as theory, practice teaching, and academic studies;

(x) staff calibre, including assessments of their qualifications and expertise;

(xi) the methods of teaching and learning, and the learning environment;

(xii) the staffing ratios;

(xiii) facilities such as libraries and laboratories;

(xiv) relationships between the institution and the profession;

(xv) the immediate scientific, cultural and intellectual environment;

(xvi) extra-curricular opportunities and commitments;

(xvii) the capacities, aptitudes and attitudes of the staff, students and past students;

(xviii) the pedagogic and vocational aims of the institution; and

(xix) the results obtained, both qualitative and quantitative, and an appraisal of the 'person product' of the institution.

If a new course for teachers is introduced, it could be compared in terms of similar degree courses offered in South Africa and overseas, to ensure a measure of functional comparability.

One standard of comparability is based on contact time. Thus a higher education qualification of three years duration, which follows on an acceptable level of 12 years of schooling, may be equated with a like qualification, providing that the number of days *per* year and hours *per* day is roughly equivalent. In the case of a degree course, the nature of the content and the academic process involved would be of crucial importance.

there appears to be no reason why a degree for all teachers in South Africa could not be introduced and provide for teacher preparation of an acceptable graduate standard. The alleged differences between degrees and diplomas in education are not irreconcilable. It is encouraging to note that:

> "...a study of similarities and dissimilarities in higher education and the application of refined criteria of comparison to this level of education led to the surprising conclusion that different systems trained personnel of similar quality".

This was the finding of Gimeno and Ibenez (1981:14) in their book, *The Education of Primary and Secondary School Teachers: An International Comparative Study.* Given this perspective, and the knowledge that undergraduate teaching degrees are the norm in the western world, the lack of a widely available degree for teachers in South Africa is surely an indictment on the authorities concerned?

As an example of a widely available degree for teachers, let us consider briefly the BEd degree in Britain.

7.14 THE B ED DEGREE IN BRITAIN

As early as 1923, the Burnham Committee was calling for a fully graduate teaching profession, but with new degrees which would be more appropriate for teachers (Lynch 1979: 9). In 1963, the Robbins Committee felt that capable student teachers should be able to proceed to degree studies, without having to start over. The establishment of a degree for teachers was related primarily to two factors:

(i) an acknowledgement of the expanding curriculum and expertise of the colleges; and

(ii) the failure of the universities as a body to provide a degree that was pertinent to the needs of teachers, in terms of studies concerning matters such as child development and the nature of the learning process.

The BEd was a distinctive degree in terms of its orientation towards teaching. It was argued that the content of the academic courses should be quite different from courses in the BA or BSc programmes (Hallett in Procter 1987:42). It was felt that the content should illustrate the essence of the discipline, building confidence and awareness of its concepts, logic and scope, as well as giving a thorough grounding in aspects which children would handle at the foundation level. The BEd degrees varied in structure, content and standard, but the variety did not supersede educational soundness and justification. A tension does exist however between the academic standards requirement and the professional teaching requirements, in order to meet the needs of practising teachers.

Problems were encountered with the BEd degree. Initially the availability of the degree was limited. Inconsistencies were noted in entry standards and selection procedures. The status of the BEd was initially uncertain. A major drawback was that the BEd was exclusively for primary preparation (Adelman 1986:176) creating a schism in the teaching profession because of differences in the qualifications for

different phases. The collegiate proposals incorporate primary and secondary teacher training in colleges with the Bachelor of Primary Education (B Prim Ed) degree being equivalent to the Bachelor of Secondary Education (B Sec Ed) degree, obviating this criticism.

The BEd in Britain was initially no more than an academicised diploma. Alexander (1984:107) described it as "...less a true degree in education than an academic degree with professional trimmings". The course tended to be overcrowded and fragmented initially, but in time the degree became more integrated and has evolved to a four year concurrent degree structure. Alexander (1984:88) commented on the introduction of the BEd degree as follows:

> "Its (i.e. the BEd degree) contribution to the growth of the colleges of education and particularly to their academic stature should not be underestimated...The all important principle of degree level teaching in the colleges was generally established..."

It is the contention in this work that such developments in South Africa are long overdue and should be coupled to the corporate development of those colleges which have been held back because of the apartheid policies for so many years.

Although a detailed analysis and consideration of the curriculum and course structure and content is beyond the parameters of this study, a brief insight into the nature of the course envisaged in deriving the collegiate model is presented for the sake of completeness.

7.15 THE NATURE OF A TEACHING DEGREE

What should a degree for teachers look like? A brief insight into the parameters perceived by the author will be considered.

7.15.1 STRUCTURE OF THE COURSE

The curriculum of an institution has to be related to its purpose. For teaching this implies that the course will be both academic and professional, with the vocational aspects and the academic aspects integrated in a holistic way. Therefore the concurrent model of teacher training is considered to be superior.

Historically, teachers obtaining degrees followed the consecutive (academic degree followed by the professional diploma) model as this suited the university. This allowed persons to decide to teach after obtaining their degree, thereby delaying the decision, and for those persons who changed their minds and no longer wished to teach, they had a general qualification that was recognised in the world of work. However, these factors are spurious from the point of view of an ideal model of graduate teacher training.

The one year professional diploma in the consecutive model is considered insufficient to adequately train a teacher as an effective practitioner. If persons with a degree decide to teach, they should complete a two to three year qualification akin to the LLB in legal training. Those persons who are doing other courses and decide they wish to

transfer to teacher training should start from the beginning of the course, as happens in other professional training courses, such as medicine and engineering. Obviously subject course credits may be given where possible, although a pedagogic requirement would probably be expected to be caught up, as teachers would study, for example, the subject mathematical education, rather than pure mathematics.

Teaching qualifications have been the source of negative comment at times, in that they are considered by some to be of no value outside teaching and they require an early commitment to teaching as a profession. Yet teaching degrees and diplomas have long held a reasonable currency in the general world of work, as is evidenced by those persons who have left teaching and entered many vocational pursuits. On the other hand, the concurrent course has been charged with creating a teacher recruitment problem, in that a commitment is required at the commencement of the course to teaching. However, the explanation may have more to do with teaching salaries and conditions of service, than having to make a commitment to the profession. Good science pupils, for example, may not choose teaching because they can do far better elsewhere, rather than because the concurrent course will trap them in teaching. Having to make a commitment to teaching initially, and at an early stage is surely desirable? It happens in other professions. The concurrent course has also been charged with having a large number of elements and a wide range of subjects. This is true and it

is endemic in all professional training courses. The medical and law courses can be similarly charged.

The concurrent course in a college environment permits an early assessment to be made of a person's suitability to teach, so that weak candidates can relocate their vocational interests. A fully relevant course related to practice, and therefore to employment, enhances the motivation of students. In the concurrent course, educational insights can develop over time, rather than having to rush matters to such a degree that they are not properly assimilated. The academic and professional studies proceed in tandem, mutually enriching and illuminating each other.

7.15.2 PRACTICE TEACHING

Practice teaching is accommodated with ease in a concurrent arrangement within a college. Recognition needs to be given to this important aspect of professional training, which is often obtrusive in a university setting and not given the time it deserves. Practice teaching is an important aspect of training for the following reasons:

(i) it forms the basis for the illustration of, and reinforcement of, the theoretical studies;

(ii) it familiarises the students with the teaching situation; and

(iii) it provides an opportunity for the student to develop and demonstrate his teaching competence, such as his

teaching skills, and interpersonal relationships with pupils and colleagues.

The Scottish Education Department's Sneddon Report on *Learning to Teach* (in Boyce 1979:32) outlined the objectives of teaching practice as:

- to practice skills and develop competence;
- to develop confidence;
- to become familiar with the system and schools;
- to have the opportunity to discover the different rates of development and variations in ability within a class;
- to develop the capacity to plan;
- to use resources effectively;
- to develop professional attitudes;
- to assume fuller and finally sole responsibility;
- to develop satisfactory relationships with pupils;
- to have the opportunity to apply theory in the practical situation and to evaluate new methods;
- to observe experienced teachers at work;
- to develop useful personal qualities;
- to become aware of the role of a teacher as a member of staff; and

- to have experience of success.

It can readily be seen that this aspect of professional preparation is central to the whole impetus of teacher education and should be integral to the teacher training process.

7.15.3 TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM

In a collegiate model, the curriculum will be evolved by the constituent colleges in consultation with the Collegium. It will naturally include academic studies, professional studies and applied studies, including practice teaching. As with all teacher education, it will be pulled in various directions. Taylor (in Alexander 1984:338) states:

> "Teacher education is Janus-faced. In one direction it faces classroom and school, with their demands for relevance, practicality, competence, technique. In the other it faces the university and the world of research, with their stress on scholarship, theoretical fruitfulness and disciplinary vigour".

In addition, teacher education should contain a fair portion of broad liberal education in order to "...avoid the pitfalls of routine pedestrianism and show resourcefulness and enterprise in his work" (Mallinson 1981:78). Porter's contention is acknowledged (in Dhlomo 1979:12) that the content and structure of the teacher training system in a given country should be viewed in terms of the reality of the situation existing in that particular country. South Africa has enormous backlogs in education, a shortage of finances and a large commitment of fiscal money is already being dedicated to education. A special plea needs to be made that teacher education should not be plundered to save

money and provide teachers by taking short cuts. Whenever this has happened in teacher training, the problems have returned to haunt the teaching profession. There is much talk of reintroducing the two year course, a relic of the past which should remain there. Maddox (in Jacques 1985:182) makes the point succinctly:

> "Even though it may be argued that for many people's vocational purposes two years is enough time to pick up the kind of skills that they may need, my own belief is that the degree of personal and intellectual maturity acquired in such a time is really not sufficient to allow somebody to take his place in the adult world confidently and with a sense of being independent... quite apart from what can be put into a curriculum in two years, and quite apart from the economic advantages of shorter courses as far as the government is concerned".

Drastically reducing the training time of doctors and lawyers, is not suggested, in spite of the endemic shortages in medical care and justice in South Africa. However a basic two year full time course, followed by a well articulated and effected internship, may well be an interim solution, providing that in-service courses are required of such teachers and are offered in an optimal manner at minimal cost.

It is strongly felt that the curriculum must elucidate matters relevant to the practising teacher in the school. Proctor (1987:38) refers to the Her Majesty's Inspectors' recommendation to include knowledge of the following in the teacher education course:

- problems of communication;

- obtaining an environment for learning;

- class, group and individual work;

- planning lessons and schemes of work;

- choice and preparation of materials;

- techiques of presentation; and

- methods of assessment.

It is further held by Her Majesty's Inspectors that all courses should include knowledge and an understanding of:

- the ways in which children develop and learn;

- the variety of pupils in terms of ability, behaviour, social background and culture;

- human relationships in schools; processes of interaction within a teaching and learning group;

- expected performance of children of differing ages, abilities, aptitudes and backgrounds;

- learning difficulties; giftedness; disadvantage;

- ethical, spiritual and aesthetic values of society as well as its political, economic and legal foundations;

- the ways in which society and schools are interrelated; ways in which the background of pupil's lives influence what they bring to their learning; sensitivity to the diversity of cultural background;

- the purposes of the curriculum and its relationship to the wider society; and

- the principles of assessment.

A teacher education course should demonstrate such teacher and school concerns and issues to be a worthy professional training. The relative unsuitability of a straight academic degree is evident when considerations such as those above are taken into account.

7.16 HIGHER DEGREES AND RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

It is visualised in the collegiate model, that the traditional universities would continue to offer education as an academic discipline, possibly as a major in arts, humanities and social science degrees, and at a post graduate level. The emphasis of such a course would be academic rather than professional. If this is so, the place of research and higher degrees in the collegiate university need to be addressed.

Maddox (in Jacques 1985:183) noted that in the United Kingdom it was permissible for some universities to be places whose chief social contribution is undergraduate teaching and whose contribution to research is negligible. This may well describe the eventual position of some of the constitutuent colleges in a collegiate arrangement. However Scott (1988:44) holds that there is a need to be in touch with scholarship even if the institution is not involved in frontier research. Such research may be applied or merely

consist in establishing a learned and scholarly environment. Research needs to be distinguished from scholarship, research being a special form of intellectual activity which involves reflection on, and a synthesis of knowledge. In this sense, a collegiate university and its constituent colleges should be involved in research.

Just as the traditional universities are involved in pure research on education as a discipline, the Collegium should be responsible for offering, and encouraging the establishment of, higher research degrees primarily of an applied nature. Hopkins (1984:11) noted that the emergence of a graduate profession was one aspect which contributed towards the increasing demand for master's courses, often of a specific and specialised form, such as in educational management. He felt that the MEd degree should focus on the enhancement of professional skill by encouraging a critical reflection on the process of education. The focus should be on the school and should develop a capacity for self-directed learning so that school experience could be the object of research by the teacher- practitioner. Such studies would differ from those offered in the traditonal university, which would tend towards being more theoretical. The nomenclature of the degrees could perhaps differentiate the research offered in each type of institution, the collegiate offering the MEd, whilst the conventional universities offer the MA Ed or M Phil Ed degrees. If B Ed degrees are offered at each type of institution, the ordinary university could offer a B Phil Ed or BA (Ed) Hons

as a post graduate degree. Naturally the distinction between pure and applied research is artificial to some extent. The difference is not a clear divide, but a matter of emphasis. Inevitably the degrees offered at each of the types of universities will overlap. However the possibility should also exist for an M Phil candidate to proceed to a D Ed, or an M Ed student to complete a Ph D.

Interchangeability should be reasonably assured. The difference is likely to be that a more applied research topic will be registered with the collegiate university and a theoretical topic at an ordinary university, because of the likelihood of finding the required supervisory expertise appropriate to the differing functions of the two kinds of universities.

It is interesting to note that there has long been a call for a specialised doctorate in education. Whilst the PhD is a scholarly degree, the EdD or (D Ed) could be a professional degree oriented towards practice. Hunt (1962:280) felt the need of an EdD course of study specific to that calling. It would be appropriate for a teacher educator to hold such a degree, suitably oriented, rather than a PhD which is geared to training a researcher. There is a need for a doctorate which offers a breadth of scholarship, coupled with specialisation, as well as professional courses. The Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education in 1980 (in Nash 1983:43) called for a DA Degree specially designed for the preparation for college

teaching. Such a DA would be equivalent in quality to a PhD, but different in character.

It is held that colleges should be enabled, under strictly controlled circumstances, to offer a BEd Hons, or BPrim Ed/ B Sec Ed Hons degree. The awarding of Masters and Doctors degrees in applied educational research, possibly with a coursework component, should be vested in the Collegium and offered in conjunction with a college. The college may have specific expertise and provide a suitable promoter or examiner, chosen by the Collegium, but these degrees would always ultimately vest in the Collegium and be examined at the behest of the Collegium.

Another aspect of teacher preparation and development, that would be associated with the collegiate model, is the in-service function and this needs to be considered.

7.17 IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Central to the collegiate concept is the upgrading and development of colleges of education and of the quality of teacher education. An important facet of teacher education upgrading and development in South Africa will be the addressing the backlogs caused by years of ideological and financial underprovisioning. Ken Hartshorne (in Ashley & Mehl 1987:8) has commented that 75000 teachers in South Africa do not even have a senior certificate, which is surely a baseline for professional recognition? Dhlomo (1979: 166) points out that 22% of the teachers in KwaZulu are unqualified. Hofmeyr and Povlich (in Ashley & Mehl

1987: 79) point out that 80% of black teachers are underqualified, as compared with 4% for white teachers, and the majority of black teachers hold a standard eight certificate and a two year professional diploma. Some 3.6% of black teachers hold degree qualifications. These figures are dramatic when it is realised that half of the teachers are under thirty years of age, which makes the long term picture dismal, unless a massive and high quality in-service provisioning is offered.

Apart from the quantitative figures, the qualitative reality is equally disturbing. Many of the teachers teach through the medium of English, yet their command of the language is poor. In addition, their working conditions and salaries are poor and, for political reasons, their status and authority has been severely degraded by the politicisation of education and the stayaways in the schools.

In-service professional teacher education and training refers to formal and informal interventions, organised by the teaching structures (departmental or professional) or by the teachers themselves, to extend and develop as persons and as teachers, in order to maximise their professional competence and general understanding. The aim of in-service endeavours may be to obtain formal academic qualifications or to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes, the result being of value to themselves, the education system and society in general. Jackson (in Dunkin 1987:733) has highlighted two approaches to in-service education:

(i) *the deficit approach*, which is geared towards eliminating obsolescence, because of a limited basic training, and inefficiency, because of teacher skills which are missing; and

(ii) *the growth approach*, in which teaching is perceived as a complex and multifaceted endeavour, wherein initial training and teaching experience are not sufficient and personal teacher growth needs to be stimulated on an ongoing basis.

Van den Berg (in Ashley & Mehl 1987:7) schematically presents in-service programmes as being designed to meet:

(i) *personal growth* by extending a teacher's human potential;

(ii) *professional growth* by engendering a teacher's confidence and competence and extending his relevant knowledge and the ability to evaluate his own work.

(iii) *school growth*, implying that schools will become more effective, more humane and more relevant; and,

(iv) *societal growth*, wherein the teacher can contribute to the positive change and the development of society.

In providing in-service facilities to make a teacher more effective, it is the classroom skills and teacher expertise which are of immediate concern, but the other factors are ultimately of concern for the teacher, the system and

society. Some feel that the emphasis of in-service teacher education should be job embedded, with an emphasis on the teacher's actual job performance. Others (Boyce 1979:14) hold that:

> "...almost any experience that provides the teacher with fresh infomation about himself or the world he lives in, that increases his understanding and enhances his judgement, can make a contribution to the improvement of teaching and learning in schools..."

This implies that such studies may have no direct connection with teaching. This liberal view of teacher education was also expressed by Taylor (in Boyce 1979:14) as:

> "A man or woman who is widely read, has informed and cultured tastes in art, music and literature, and a civilised life style, brings qualities to the classroom which advanced professional training may focus and enhance, but for which it can never be a substitute".

The reasons given for an in-service teacher upgrading may vary. Some of the aims of in-service facilities include, *inter alia*:

- ensuring that teaching is in line with national and local needs;

- fitting a teacher to changes in his role occasioned by changes in the teaching system or society;

- keeping the teacher abreast of advances and changes in knowledge and pedagogy;

- to engender educational change;

- to raise the quality of teaching;

- to develop the teachers into more effective purveyors of knowledge;

- to develop professional motivation and creativity;

- to allow teachers to develop and evaluate their work in the light of the abilities and progress of their peers;

- to develop special talents and dispositions, for example, those required for educational leadership and management on an adequate and systematic basis because of the assumption of larger responsibilities; and,

- to help disadvantaged teachers to catch up and keep up.

It is evident that an in-service facility is of crucial importance in teacher education effectiveness. This may be accomplished in a variety of ways.

Courses or conferences may be arranged by colleges, universities, professional teacher associations, or by the employing authorities. The programmes need to be flexible to meet differing needs, without compromising on quality and standards. Preferably these courses should not be disruptive of schooling by withdrawing the teacher from the classroom. To be effective, it is better if the courses are made compulsory and some sort of recognition should be given for completing the courses with sound application. If the courses are offered by correspondence or distance learning, local support structures should be established, such as local reference and resource persons, tutor visits and vacation schools. Sound in-service provision should meet the

identified needs of the schools and the teachers, which implies that they should be consulted and involved in the planning. Equally important, a system of follow up and feedback will ensure a more effective and accountable system. Priorities should be established so that the weaker teachers and schools receive help first. In South Arican terms, this would be the rural schools and they represent the greatest challenge because of the lack of infrastructure and the large areas to be covered.

The structures through which in-service provisions will be effected depends on the perceived locus of responsibility for such a service. Hartshorne (in Ashley & Mehl 1987:4) holds:

> "...(the quality of education) is very dependent upon the qualifications, experience and competence of the teachers providing the service and there the State has a responsibility to ensure that the teachers have at least the basic capacity to provide the service. The initiative here lies with the State and not the individual teacher".

The State responsibility for in-service education and training implies that this matter should be dealt with at the national level with a well articuated policy for in-service provision. Planning should occur on a national basis, with definite consultation mechanisms at regional and local levels. This service should be well coordinated in a national development plan. Coordinated efforts imply a cooperation and partnership among the teacher associations, universities, colleges, outside agencies and the employing authorities. This view deliberately challenges the assumption that the Department of Education, the employing

authorities, are the only, or even the best, judges of what is good for their teachers in terms of in-service requirements.

It is often stressed that in-service facilities should be an integral part of the overall teacher education and training strategy of a country. It must not be seen in isolation either from a societal or teaching parameters. In order to achieve a relevant in-service facilitiy, it should ideally be coordinated as an integral part of the three 'i' provision of teacher education, namely the initial, induction and in-service aspects of teacher education. If the colleges and the Education Departments work in conjunction to provide in-service facilities, it is easy to coordinate the pre-service and in-service training. An additional advantage of this model of in-service provision is that a central policy can be effected on a decentralised and regional basis. This type of structure is found in the collegiate model.

In-service provisioning requires a commitment from the State in response to the need for a quality in-service facility. This will require a financial policy on a national basis, with adequate financial resources and capable staffing in order to make this service effective. Special budgetary provision will be required to meet the needs, in order to eliminate past inequalities and backlogs. The staff would need to have sound school expertise coupled with sound academic qualities. Staffing is crucial to the success of the in-service function. In-service personnel should have a

professional approach, in that the aim is not to tell the teacher what to do, or fit him to the system, but rather to support the teacher in his professional task and provide the environment in which he can question and find the answers that work for him as a professional.

The James Report (1972:3-7) specifically addressed the importance of in-service teacher education and stressed its value. It was held that pre-service education and training could never be more than a foundation, in that it is impossible to foresee, or provide for, all the professional demands that are likely to be encountered by a professional teacher in his career. It is in in-service education that the quality of schooling and the standards of the teaching profession can be "...most speedily, powerfully and economically improved". The best education and training of teachers is "...built upon and illuminated by growing maturity and experience", as teachers have a clearer idea of their needs and problems. James held that (1972:7):

> "Although this deeper understanding, however much emphasised in initial training, cannot be fully acquired without prolonged experience, suitable in-service training, rooted in the experience teachers have already had, can be a powerful aid".

Effective, in-service education needs to be:

- part of the total teacher education strategy;

- concerned with the teachers and schools rather than the 'system';

- close to where the teachers are and with their full involvement and participation;

- democratic and cooperative in its style and nature; and,

- seen as one of the strategies for achieving equality. (Hartshorne in Ashley & Mehl 1987:13).

In-service education and training have been perceived as being a central concern in the collegiate model as a strategy to develop the teaching profession and the colleges of education. The collegiate model lends itself ideally to a centrally controlled, but locally administered system on a coordinated national basis.

7.18 SUMMARY

The proposal of a collegiate university model raises a number of questions and issues, which have been considered on the 'first principle' basis.

The central consideration revolved around the status and place of teacher education within higher education. In order to claim that teacher education should occur in a university structure (the collegiate university) it was necessary to review what a university is in theory and in practice, and in what way a university relates to the State.

Various ways in which teacher education can be accommodated in a university structure were considered. The nature of

professional education was explicated as it occurs in a university.

From 'first principles', the rationale behind teacher education qualifications being degreeworthy were elucidated and the B Ed experience in Britain was reviewed.

Finally, the nature of a degree for teacher education was considered. This discussion included issues such as the structure of such a degree, its content in terms of academic, professional and practical parameters, post-graduate degrees and research, and in-service teacher education.

CHAPTER EIGHT

8 ADMINISTRATIVE REQUIREMENTS AND MECHANISMS FOR MAINTAINING STANDARDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Various administrative requirements and mechanisms have been devised to ensure and improve the quality of teacher education. Dunkin (1987:659) has highlighted some of these as being:

- raising admission standards;
- strengthening accreditation processes;
- providing effective internships;
- providing effective continuing education;
- redesigning teacher education programmes; and
- increasing teacher salaries as an incentive for drawing a better calibre of applicant.

The collegiate concept is perceived, in part, as a mechanism for ensuring standards, developing colleges and lecturers and pooling resources and expertise in a corporate non-competitive attempt to improve the quality of teacher education. In this chapter, the whole question of standards in teacher education and mechanisms to ensure standards will be considered, as this has an important bearing on the collegiate concept.

8.2 CERTIFICATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Certification is the procedure by which institutions issue a certificate stating that a person has complied with all the requirements applying to a particular qualification. It is commonly applied in qualifying to practise a profession such as teaching. The qualification forms part of the certification, which may require a period of professional practice before the certification is awarded.

With a variety of training institutions, certification is a mechanism used to assure society that a professional is eminently qualified in spite of such variations in training. Such certification represents a contractual agreement authorising the professional to render service. Certification is usually controlled by the profession itself, the process acting as the 'conscience' of the profession, as it has a unifying effect and uplifts the status of the profession.

Certification in teaching is a ploy to protect the profession. Teaching is an externally controlled profession as the major decisions concerning admission, preparation for practice, as well as the terms and conditions of practice, are determined by legislative and regulatory bodies essential external to the profession. Up to a point this is acceptable as the State must control schooling as part of its sovereign duty. If the power of State control becomes too detailed and prescriptive however, certification is a means whereby a profession can establish national

acceptability and become an architect of its own destiny to a far greater extent (Sparks 1970:344). Professional standards are developed which must find broad acceptance within the profession and credibility with the public. Debate commonly exists as to the nature of the agency which should be entrusted with the certification. In order to safeguard the public from a service in which terms are dictated *via* the guise of funding procedures, a professional body is considered preferable as a certifying agency to a governmental body. Control of teaching by teachers should in effect improve the competence of teachers. Public sentiment requires competency testing *via* a standardised set of criteria for entry to the teaching profession.

Such criteria may include basic intelligence, communication skills, a general education, knowledge of the subject matter to be taught, and personal characteristics, but these necessary qualities are not sufficient to be certified as a teacher. Preparation in pedagogy is also required, which may include a training curriculum to provide knowledge and skills considered essential to teach, and a supervised internship in which to demonstate on the job competency. Once certificated, a teacher is presumed to have met the appropriate entry level standards applied to all teachers as a guarantee of the standard of training.

Certification has been criticised, as if the standards are too rigorous when selection takes place, there will not be sufficient teachers to meet the country's requirements.

Certification is meant as a means to an end, but it can become an end in itself. Syncom (1986:30) declared:

> "Certificates have to a large degree replaced learning as the objective of formal education. The concentration on mental and theoretical exercises, on rote memorisation rather than practical experience and the skill to apply acquired knowledge, prepares most students for neither job, family nor responsible adulthood".

The aim of certification is control for the ultimate benefit of the child in the classroom. Bad certification occurs when the aim of the process becomes professional self improvement *en masse via* a gatekeeping process.

8.3 ACCREDITATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Accreditation is the permission given by an authorised institution to a person, or an institution, or a group of institutions which comply with pre-determined standards on criteria, to undertake teacher training. It includes the right to periodic confirmation that certain criteria are still being complied with to the satisfaction of the authorised institutuion (TFC unpublished). It is the means an employing body may employ to evaluate the quality of a professional programme at a given institution. Similarly a professional body may use accreditation to ensure that qualifications granted by an institution over which it has no direct control meets, in part or in entirety, its requirements for admission to membership of the profession (Goodlad, Harrison in 1984:151).

The accreditation process has an influence on the profession and on the training institutions in that the prescribed

guidelines and visitational reviews of courses exert external judgements on institutional performance and the perceived professional requirements. These influences may be positive and promote the improvement of professional training and hence of professional practice. They may also be negative in the sense that the earliest terms for accreditation in the perjorative sense were 'classification' and 'standardisation', implying a seal of conformity in the name of quality. Such uniformity and inflexibility may well be seen as undesirable.

Although accreditation competes with the autonomy of the institution, it allows the institution freedom in other ways. Selden (1964:267) points out that accreditation of teacher education must be viewed as part of the government of higher education in that colleges and universities have the obligation to demonstrate for all of society how they can voluntarily and cooperatively govern themselves,and how they can maintain 'freedom under authority'. For this reason it is imperative that the institutions themselves assume the primary responsibility for their mutual governance in the accreditation of teacher education. Their primary responsibility does not exclude the participation of other groups, including the general public, which also have valid concerns for the education of the teachers of their children. Thus it is the perceived responsibility of colleges to govern themselves collectively and well in the public interest, or else the public will require the government to provide the needed governance. Accreditation,

in allowing for recognition by other educational institutions and the public, in fact promotes institutional autonomy within professionally prescribed limits rather than under governmental control. Through the determination of minimum requirements for their courses, institutions guarantee the standard of their training. Accreditation can therefore be a means of controlling standards.

Accreditation may be accomplished in various ways.

(i) Institutions could be given complete autonomy and accredited on their own recognisances. It is interesting to note that the American four year colleges from their inception in colonial days, were granted the authority to award degrees;

(ii) The control of standards could also be achieved by a National Ministry with extensive powers and authority. This is the basic model of control currently applicable to many of the (black) teacher education colleges which fall under Departmental controls;

(iii) Standards could be controlled by higher education institutions falling under a national university, as happened initially in South Africa. Here there is the fear of imperialism and a lack of institutional autonomy;

(iv) Control could be situated regionally or locally; and

(v) Accreditation and the control of standards could be accomplished by an independent agency, with a legal status distinct from governmental control.

The collegiate model has elements of each of these in that institutions will have a degree of autonomy under a quasi governmental/quasi professional intercollegiate structure, with professional and local public inputs.

There is a need to develop a reliable and generally acceptable set of measures for a system of universal accreditation. The aim is to derive a common set of standards cooperatively. Although the selection of criteria and measures thereof is debatable, the cooperative process involving inter-institutional dialoguing is, in itself, beneficial to the aims of accreditation. The resultant factors will be based on agreements relating to professional knowledge and practices. It could be argued that the process is as valuable as the outcome in accreditation.

Accreditation is thus a system whereby institutions as a community confer credentials on member institutions, which is the essence of the collegiate concept. The process is aimed at establishing institutional equivalences and course compatability. It is determined whether courses at one institution are of essentially the same quality as courses at another institution. Accreditation thus paves the way for course transferability and student transferability from one accredited institution to another.

Accreditation in this regard, on the other hand, can be a negative influence as it engenders an often unintentional enforcement of uniformity. If the curricula are essentially identical, innovation tends to become suppressed. Some balance is needed on a 'separate but equal' basis, but the pressures for conformity are strong. Barrett (1980:38) has pointed out that inter-institutional validation or accreditation, where the institutions are related, but dissimilar, as with universities accrediting college of education courses, the tendency is for the colleges to be pulled away from their professional context, by tending to become too academic. The collegiate concept allows inter-collegiate accreditation, with applied education diplomas and degrees, which would obviate this problem to a fair extent.

8.4 VALIDATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Evaluation is any procedure whereby the effectiveness of a course of professional training is investigated by the teaching institution itself or by an external body (Harrison in Goodlad 1984:151). Validation is a specific kind of evaluation in that it is a procedure for establishing the suitability of a proposed course, in respect of content, academic standard and teaching resources, which will lead to a qualification being awarded upon the successful completion of the course. Thus a qualification is submitted to an authorised institution by the teacher training institution involved and, after evaluation according to specified and

generally agreed on criteria, the qualificiation is declared valid. Billing (1986:40) defines validation as:

> "A political process of legitimation ... a way of building consensus, internally and externally, by adding together a number of subjective judgements to develop confidence in degree courses amongst teachers and outsiders".

He sees the role of accreditation as symbolic and motivational rather than as normative. Strictly, validation refers to the scrutiny of an initial proposal to mount a new degree course. This needs to be distinguished from the continuing monitoring of existing courses and from periodic reviews of the output of higher education institutions. However, in practice validation has come to mean the entire quality control operations, including the control and evaluation of a course, as a means of encouraging academics to think about and evaluate the aims, methods and results of their teaching in a purposeful and critical way (Church 1988:29). Universities talk of this process as the monitoring of academic standards. The aim of such processes is to improve quality and efficiency, and these factors are largely dependent on the commitment of the academic community to maintain and improve standards. Thus validation and monitoring are not completely separate from normal management procedures.

Validation operates in a collegial way. It is predicated on the belief that self evaluation is the most important guarantee of academic vitality. Rather than accepting externally imposed notions of performance or purpose, it is claimed (Church 1988:28) that institutions should be

esteemed for their collective process of peer review and the way that it is evaluated within the system.

The quality of staff at an institution of higher education is regarded as the first safeguard of the quality of eduction in general. Given a properly qualified staff, fairly appointed, such staff resources can be fully exploited through a professional induction training. Validation and the monitoring process require staff interaction within a coherent and self critical institutional community. This process aids in staff development. Professional dialogue, based on mutual trust, within and between institutions is the essence of validation and ongoing monitoring procedures. What is really at issue is convincing one's peers that one is a worthy member of the guild (Church 1988:39). Validation is therefore a system of ensuring that people think seriously and consistently about the design and operation of their courses, and the effects of their teaching. Essentially it encourages an attitude of concern for the nature and purpose of teaching and learning. The ultimate decision about validation rests in the assessment of the arguments and their conviction. The process relies on talking about course and institutional coherence, consistency, integration, progression and leadership. What is actually assessed is hard to define and identify, but there is no doubt that validation has come to serve as a means of developing professional and, especially, institutional self confidence. In the process it has helped

to justify institutional autonomy, funding and a symbolised institutional status. Goodlad (1984:155) declares:

> "In the past, validation and accreditation requirements have done a great deal to improve and maintain the standards of teaching institutions, particularly new ones and those in the process of upgrading".

The relevance of these sentiments *vis-a-vis* the colleges of education in South Africa is apparent. Although validation is not an absolute guarantee or warranty, it is a useful guide to the standard of professional education. Barnett (1986, in Church 1988:40) has summed up the value of validation:

> "Validation has also been defended as a way of allowing institutions to attain their real purpose and character, as providers of a corporate enterprise based on collaborative, critical dialogue rather than accepting technological values imposed from the outside".

In South African collegiate terms, a self imposed and administered validation process is preferable to control by bureaucratic officials in Education Departments, allowing the colleges, in time, to develop and come in to their own.

Validation can include determining conditions of entry to a course, the structure of a course, including content and level of syllabuses, the standard of achievement required of the students, practical experience - in short, a justification for awarding a teaching qualification. Rather than specifying rigid requirements, permissible kinds of performance are defined. These assessments can be made *via* student assessment, reports, inspections and staff appraisal. The emphasis can be on the process and the

outcomes of the course. In order to maintain and improve standards, staff development may be included in the course monitoring process.

Validation raises questions on how to assess the relative success of a course. Discussion may centre on what the course objectives should be (summative evaluation), the effects the course has on the student (illuminative evaluation) or the reasons why sections of a course are effective or not (prescriptive evaluation) (Harrison in Goodlad 1984:155). Valid questions raised include whether the professional training is appropriate, what the duration of the training should be, what balance should be obtained between general education, theoretical training and practical experience.

Three modes of validation have been identified (Church 1988:27):

(i) initial approval of new courses;

(ii) regular monitoring of performance, including ongoing adaptations and rectifications made to the course; and

(iii) intermittent, but more intensive and formal inspection of the course organisation and achievement.

Within these categories it is possible to review:

(i) inputs, such as admissions, resources, staffing and curricula;

(ii) processes *via* feedback mechanisms such as continuous assessment and staff development; and

(iii) outputs in terms of final exminations, the external examiner system and visitation by outsiders.

Although validation has an empirical type of approach, it has limitations in terms of its modes, its functioning and its procedures.

Validation may be conducted by the institution itself, by academic peers external to an institution, by a national academic body, by a professional body or by a combination of the above. The Teachers' Federal Council has favoured one central body, with representatives of the training institutions, of the colleges, universities, technikons, and the organised teaching profession. It is implied that such a body will be for all population groups.

8.5 NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION (NCATE)

The core references for the NCATE discussions are Browne (1979), Cottrell (1964) and Smith (1985).

In the United States of America, accreditation is accomplished on a different basis to what would be applicable in South Africa, as teacher education is organised on a state basis. Each state accredits its own teacher education programmes. There is a need however for an inter-state accreditation mechanism on a nationally acceptable basis and NCATE fulfils this role to an extent.

NCATE is not a State controlled agency, it has no legal status as such and accreditation with NCATE is on a voluntary basis. For this reason it is not a truly national accrediting institution as it does not function universally for all teacher education institutions.

In the independent and self governing states in Southern Africa, the state boundaries are not an obstacle to employment and so accreditation on an NCATE basis is not envisaged for South Africa. However the NCATE system does highlight issues and procedures which are relevant to the present disucssion and so this system will be considered briefly.

8.5.1 ORIGIN OF NCATE

NCATE was established in 1954 under the auspices of the AACTE out of five constituent organisations representing agents of training, legal sanction, professional affiliation and employment in teacher education. It was recognised by the National Commission on Accrediting as the official accrediting body for teacher education. Its interests and representation have been exclusively oriented to higher education making it difficult to engender the widespread professional and legal support necessary to counter the pressure of influential schools officials and lay citizens who constitute pressure groups for state certification, expressing political action, vested interests and the scramble for control of teacher education (Dunkin 1987:659).

8.5.2 COMPOSITION OF NCATE: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The nature of the membership of NCATE has been polemical. Some feel that all the stakeholders in teacher education should be represented. If this were so, including all the scholarly disciplines involved, the numbers would be unwieldy making the Council virtually unmanageable. Yet there is a need to operate with a degree of fairness to all parties. If a system of committees is used as a mechanism for wide representivity in all areas of concern, the question of interactivity and the effective flow of information and opinions becomes a problem. A wide assortment of associations, societies and organisations within an intricate process of participation would result in a complex and cumbersome arrangement for accreditation. Suggestions have been made for an elected Board of Directors to adopt policy, set standards and generally approve procedural patterns, supported by specialist panels which would deliberate and serve as channels of information from the field to the Council and consider problems and issues. The panels could nominate members to Council.

There has also been discussion on the relationship of a member of the Council or a committee to the constituency that nominated him. Should the nature of his obligation be to take the 'party line', lobby and guard the interests of his constituency by influencing policy, or does the good of the profession take precedence over parochial interests, so that a representative can be independent and operate as a

free moral agent? The latter view predominates, with the representative making known the general climate of opinion and thinking in his constituency and feeding back the reactions to policy decisions and judgements, thereby keeping the Council abreast of consistituency perspectives. In general, it is felt that the need is for high calibre Council members, with the Council being able to depend on their maturity, sincerity and good intentions.

These theoretical perspectives represent real issues which need to be considered when considering the collegiate concept, based as it is on professional corporality and peer support.

8.5.3 COMPOSITION OF NCATE

NCATE is composed largely of representatives of teachers and teacher educators. As such it represents professional regulation, without the legal jurisdiction of state level licensure. The Council consists of 19 members as follows:

7 members from the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education

3 members from the Ad Hoc Committee appointed by the National Commission on Accrediting (representing liberal arts colleges)

1 member from the Council of Chief State School Officers

1 member from the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification

6 members from the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA

1 member from the National School Boards Association

The Council has three major committees:

The Committee of Visitation and Appraisal consists of 36 members, 3 from the Council and 33 from colleges, universities, the school system and state departments of education. Colleges and university representation predominates, resulting effectively in peer review. Apart from establishing the evidence for the Council to decide on accreditation applications, this Committee also recommends policy changes and changes to standards, arising out of its experience.

The Committee on Standards consists of 7 members, of which four are Council members. This Committee establishes the guides on accreditation of institutions and the standards required, which means establishing the kind of information needed by the Council to determine whether the standards required are being met.

An Appeals Board is appointed by the Council, but it has nothing to do with the Council and is not responsible to it. It is an avenue for appeal of Council decisions and it is interesting to note that in the first 10 years of NCATE's existence, this Board has never had cause to function as no appeal has been presented. The members of this Board are not appointed for their knowledge of teacher education, but for

their integrity, courage and general standing as educators. An institution which wishes to appeal presents a statement of appeal, the Council makes all the documents available relevant to the case. The Board is required to review the Council's decision in the light of the evidence and make its findings and recommendations on the case known to the Council, which makes the outcome public knowledge.

A person who has been associated with an institution being considered for accreditation must excuse himself from the Council or the above committees.

The costs of visitation are born by the institution being judged for accreditation

8.5.4 RATIONALE OF NCATE

The need was felt for a body with responsibility for establishing some consensus or commonality about what should be included in courses preparing future primary school teachers. The approach was not be prescriptive, but aimed at standardisation at acceptable levels. On these grounds, NCATE is required to publically identify institutions that meet certain standards or criteria in a specific area of education. In the process, the educational provision is stimulated and improved. The process of accreditation is also concerned with increasing the stature of the profession by enhancing the stature of its professional learning and education programme. The ultimate aim is national recognition and acceptance by society of the professional

programmes accredited, and therefore the individuals who hold these qualifications, *via* an assurance to society that the programmes are of a high quality.

8.5.5 PROCESS OF ACCREDITATION

An institution seeking accreditation for a programme applies to the Council. It is sent data on the initial information which is required, which it duly completes and returns to the Council. This information is assessed. If there are problems, the institution is informed and requested to review their programme and to take steps to rectify the position. If there are no problems, the institution is asked to proceed with plans for the visitation. A date is set for the visitation and the institution is required to prepare a report on how the institution prepares its teachers, with a separate chapter for each of the seven standards required, which represent the criteria basis for judging an institution. The seven areas are:

(i) institutional objectives;

(ii) organisation and administration;

(iii) student personnel programmes and services;

(iv) faculty;

(v) curricula;

(vi) laboratory experiences; and,

(vii) facilities and instructional materials.

This document may be between 75-200 pages in length.

The institution is sent a list of possible visitors and may delete persons it considers not suitable from the list. About 12 visitors are then selected by the Council, with about 10 of these coming from out of state colleges and universities. The local persons represent the state department and the state education association. Each visitor receives a copy of the institutions self report and NCATE materials on visitation. During the 3-4 days of the visit, the members of the committee observe conditions, examine records and conduct interviews. In particular they gather performance and validation information on the nature of the teacher education programme, why it is as it is, especially noting unusual features, and the acceptability of the programme with reference to each standard. They report on specified indices and evidence of quality. Their report must be on factual information and may not consist of value judgements. Visiting team members are specifically debarred from consultation or giving advice as they must assess the factors objectively and not form part of the process. The members of the committee provide information to the Chairman who writes up the report, which contains no recommendations or criticisms. The institution is permitted to check this report for completeness and accuracy before it is presented to the Council. The report is usually some 40-70 pages in length.

This report is sent to the members of the Committee on Visitation and Appraisal, with the supporting documents.

They weigh the reported information against the Council's standards and prepare a report for the Council, including a recommendation of action. The Council meets twice a year to decide on the issue and the decision is sent to the institution with reasons. The chairmen of the committees which have investigated and deliberated on the matter are present when the application is discussed by Council.

Such a process recurs every 7-10 years after accreditation is granted for a programme. Visitation can be conducted at any time if there is cause for concern. The denial rate is one in five of the institutions making application for accreditation.

8.5.6 PRINCIPLES OF THE PROCESS OF ACCREDITATION

Certain principles appertain to the process of accreditation by NCATE. A programme will only be evaluated on request if it has received the prior approval of the local state department and the regional association. It should be noted that it is the programme which is accredited and not the institution. Accreditation is considered in three categories, *viz.* elementary school , secondary school and school service personnel, which includes administrators, counsellors, supervisors and curriculum specialists, and accreditation covers from undergraduate to doctoral level.

A request for accreditation is not declined without offering an opportunity for the institution concerned to provide clarifying information or further evidence of quality. The final outcome may be full accreditation granted, or

provisional accreditation or a 'deferral of action'. An institution has three years to meet the prescribed provisos of provisional accreditation by presenting evidence of its qualities required to qualify. Only once such trial is offered, at a time suitable to the institution itself and, if the trial is failed, a full new evaluation becomes necessary. If on the other hand the decision is 'action deferred', the institution may request a reappraisal and a meeting is held to validate any clarifying information presented.

NCATE requests Departments of Education to credential students who have NCATE institution qualifications. Allowance is made for joint visits with regional accrediting agencies, reducing the double load on institutions. NCATE is however solely responsible for the policies it adopts and the procedures it follows, given that prior consultation does occur. The emphasis is on meeting standards rather than stimulation of improvement, although the latter is held to flow from the former. One drawback, which seems insurmountable at present, is that no adequate way has been found to evaluate the performance of the person product of an accredited institution, which is desirable in theory but difficult to realise in practice.

From its experience NCATE feels that, in spite of instances of excellence, the preparation and in-service programmes it has encountered are not generally adequate. It feels strongly that the determination of policies and plans for teacher education should be derived from the combined

efforts of academic and professional educators at the institutional level. It also believes that there is no golden yardstick and that accreditation must be relative to the status of the profession and its training institutions, and that as the standing of these rises, the function and role of an accrediting body should likewise change.

Because it does not specify courses or credits required to secure certification, NCATE claims to be committed to variation and experimentation. Its assessments are broader in nature and hinge on whether the conditions in a college are conducive to effective teacher education programmes.

8.5.7 NCATE AND ACCOUNTABILITY

NCATE is not subject to any public control whatever. Whether this should be so has been queried. If NCATE were accountable directly this would affect is constitution, *modus operandi* and the outcomes of the accreditation process. There are an enormous range and variety of teacher education institutions, from small monotechnic colleges to complex universities, each with its own vested interests. Seldom is an accrediting body responsible to the institutions it asseses. Then the government, the community, the parents, students and the profession have decided interests. In what way can it be held responsible by all these interests, which are often in conflict? How can the Council decide what is acceptable practice and from what criteria? Where should the final seat of authority lie? The considered opinion in answer to these sorts of queries is

that the Council should be responsive and sensitive to all the elements in the field it serves, but with authority to act independently in the final analysis.

Yet NCATE can be seen to be hamstrung by its own members, as it is a voluntary organisation and would battle to set standards and requirements too far removed from its members institutional practices and achievements. Innovation becomes difficult as members cling to their tried and tested ways and resist change. Yet NCATE can claim that 50 % of the colleges and universities do participate in its accreditation process, and one in five of the institutions making application for accreditation are denied it, which shows both credibility and clout. Dunkin (1987:658) claims that the effect of the NCATE accreditation is more honorific than regulatory however.

8.5.8 CRITIQUE OF NCATE

Much debate has centred around the intent of NCATE and whether these intentions are realised, or even realisable. Debate has arisen on what should be assessed, for example the educational processes, or fields of knowledge, or the facilities or the results attained? Should the accreditation process be specific to positions or functions or roles, such as an art teacher or a vice principal? What is the importance of assessing the organisational pattern or institutional pattern? Accreditation is purported to be a form of prediction of future excellence in the performance of professional tasks. If so, are accomplishments what

should be assessed or are these reliable indicators of practitioner performance? Should an institution be required to develop its own concepts of meaning and standards? What constitutes a 'defect' sufficient to result in accreditation being denied?

Disagreement occurs (Cottrell 1964:149-151) over whether the standards should be universal and ideal, or a minimum that is acceptable, and whether in detailed and specific terms. Proponents of a universal ideal stress the advantage of the influence of standards in producing a common mind as to appropriate requirements and feel that institutional divergences can be accommodated on a basis of flexibility in judgement. There is an assurance of a common denominator of qualifications among all institutions. Yet detractors to the universal ideal approach point out the difficulties in gaining consensus on what should be ideal and universal and fear that those institutions who fall far short of the ideal may give up an accreditation as being beyond their reach. But if minimum standards are implemented, where is the impetus to strive for a better quality, especially if NCATE is perceived by inferior institutions as an inspection agency which encourages conformity rather than development?

If detailed or specific measures are taken, this leads to a profusion of detail and it does not allow for the typical, yet successful, operation. A shortage of library books will have a negative effect on an academic qualification, but what number of books is sufficient and what of the few key books handled in depth approach, which is also valid?

General terms as standards are preferred as they are more meaningful and significant, they encourage initiative and permit flexible standards. They concentrate on quality rather than quantity. But these aspects are difficult to assess, as no criteria or indices exist beyond subjective judgement.

Does the NCATE accreditation process really stimulate improvement by the application of standards? Or does the rigid adherence to standards tend to stifle imagination and discourage innovation, which are essential to improvement? An institution could be technically good, with all the processes, procedures and facilities, yet conduct an inferior programme. The outcome in terms of student quality, or perhaps qualities, is beyond measurement as the requisite indices are not known or fully understood, indeed if they ever will be in a human concern.

The procedure of a Visiting Committee to verify facts and leave the decision to another Committee far removed from the institution to decide on the basis of hearsay, expressed in written reports, has been questioned as a valid measure. There is also the problem of finding suitable Committee members, with the training and experience. If professional educators predominate, as tends to happen, there is less emphasis on academic matters and more on the techniques and mechanics of the professional practice. The right of teachers to be involved in establishing goals and objectives is accepted, but this does not make them competent to judge college teacher education programmes.

The sheer volume of work involved in teacher accreditation is contrary to a refined process. With 900 training institutions, compared to 87 for medical training, the task is almost impossibly difficult.

In comparison, state accreditation occurs *via* a process of teacher certification after teaching experience, which may be a more valid appraisal of the person and the programme he followed. Regional associations are entirely controlled by institutional members and are committed to the principle of institutions accrediting each other. Yet the profession must surely also have a stake and an input. NCATE is not a system of peer review in fact, especially when universities are being assessed by teacher educators, which can happen. Some feel the need to make NCATE more responsible to the colleges and the universities.

The concept of national accreditation may be perceived to be just another undesirable restriction on the vital freedom of institutions. Some feel that quality will be improved by giving the teacher education institutions complete freedom to develop programmes without the restrictions of standards or accreditation of any sort. Yet complete autonomy in teacher education may not be advisable, let alone possible. With 50 states in America, each with its own vision of acceptable standards in teacher education, the need is felt for accreditation to establish a national standard of quality.

It is evident from the above discussion that many perspectives are possible; it is truly a matter of *quis custodiet ipses custodes?*

8.6 ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS

In a collegiate arrangement, two guarantees must be built in to the structures, *viz.*:

(i) As a degree awarding body, the Collegium must ensure that its degrees are up to a sufficient academic standard to equate with equivalent degrees taken at any other South African university; and,

(ii) The Collegium must ensure that the awards, and hence the teaching and assessment that lead to these awards, are up to standard, so that the qualifications obtained at one college will fairly equate with a qualification received at another college.

As a degree awarding body, the collegiate university concept has been based on the CNAA in Britain and the structure, role and functioning of the CNAA needs to be considered.

8.7 COUNCIL FOR NATIONAL ACADEMIC AWARDS(CNAA): A CASE STUDY IN THE VALIDATION PROCESS

The core reference used on the CNAA was Lane(1975).

The CNAA has become an international standard and template for the awarding of degrees in institutions, including colleges of education, which do not themselves have a degree awarding charter. This model is, in broad principle,

appropriate for consideration in the collegiate model being proposed.

8.7.1 ORIGINS OF CNAA

The CNAA arose out of the recommendations of the Robbins Committee which:

> "... had seen the need for an alternative degree system in which the colleges could themselves fully participate in establishing standards and achieving academic progress" (Lynch 1979:58-59).

Robbins held that in academic life, good teaching relies upon independence and so it was considered fundamental that an educational institution should be able to prescribe the requirements of its own courses. As an autonomous institution it should be free to establish and maintain its own standards of competence without referring to any central authority. For example, the colleges of education, in their relationship with universities, were placed in a dependent position. In addition to underwriting college degrees, the CNAA also took over the examination for a number of professional bodies.

The CNAA was established by Royal Charter in 1964 and permitted college of education students, *inter alia*, to take degree courses that were comparable in standard with other degrees. The CNAA also catered for the ever increasing need and demand for vocational, professional and industrially based courses that could not be fully met by the universities. In its Charter, the CNAA was committed to the advancement of education, learning, knowledge and the arts

and it was given powers to grant and confer degrees, diplomas, certificates and other academic awards and distinctions at educational institutions other than universities.

8.7.2 CNAA CONCEPT

The principle behind the CNAA concept is that an educational institution knows more about itself than outsiders. The CNAA represents a cooperative institutional validating system, comprising *inter alia* colleges, which enter voluntarily into a nationally organised system of review by peers external to their own college in order to establish course validation, whilst retaining their status of self governing academic communities. This peer review has developed into a partnership in course validation by persons who are personally disinterested in the outcome, in that they do not have a personal vested interest in a course. No model or prescribed mode exists for CNAA courses, so that colleges are forced to define and interpret their own aims and specialisation, which allows for institutional diversity. Freedom is allowed within certain limits for a college to devise its own curriculum and syllabus, to set its own admission standards and to examine its own students internally, subject to external examination moderation. Thus an independent and self-governing college has the facility to create and administer awards which have national currency, as the CNAA ensures that a uniformally acceptable standard is maintained, whilst, at the same time, regional and institutional variations are satisfied.

The CNAA has published its guiding principles as follows (CNAA 1987:1-3):

(i) The main function of the Council is to work with institutions to maintain and enhance the standard of the awards conferred under the Council's Charter and to ensure that the awards are comparable in standard with those conferred throughout higher education in the United Kingdom;

(ii) The Council shall encourage the development of institutions as strong, cohesive and self-critical academic communities;

(iii) The quality of higher education is most effectively maintained and enhanced where institutions carry the maximum possible responsiblility for their own academic standards;

(iv) The Council shall devolve responsibility for the maintenance and advancement of academic standards to institutions to the extent that they are capable of discharging that responsibility;

(v) The Council must be able to satisfy itself that all institutional arrangements for the monitoring and review of courses and the academic standards achieved are satisfactory;

(vi) The Council has a continuing responsibility to promote and disseminate good practice in public sector higher education by acting as a national centre for the exchange of intelligence on developments in course design,

teaching, learning and assessment and by providing nationally collated information to assist institutions in course validation and review;

(vii) A system of peer review, based on nationwide intelligence and drawing on persons from diverse backgrounds in higher education, industry, commerce, and the professions, is of significant benefit and needs to be retained;

(viii) In order to help to ensure greater emphasis on the standards achieved, the external examiner system is to continue to be improved and strengthened;

(ix) The Counil needs to maintain a record of students who have received awards under its Charter;

(x) The Council must be able to ensure that complaints and appeals concerning its awards and the courses leading to to those awards are properly investigated and resolved; and

(xi) CNAA's processes must be as simple and cost-effective as possible.

Such principles would represent a sound basis for the collegiate model.

8.7.3 CNAA STRUCTURES AND ORGANISATION

The CNAA is not a government agency. It is an independent body with the general powers of a university. It is governed by a Council which makes final decisions on matters of policy and controls the financial and administrative

affairs. The Council consists of 25 members, appointed by the Secretaries of State. A Chairman is also appointed. The representivity of the Council is as follows:

- seven university representatives;
- ten lecturers in constituent institutions;
- six persons from commerce and industry;
- two persons representing LEA interests; and,
- up to three additional members may be co-opted

In addition the chief executive officer and the chairman of the main committees are *ex officio* members. Councillors hold office for a term of three years. The Council meets at least three times *per* year, although special meetings can be called. Decisions are determined by a majority vote.

A number of main committees are established by the Council. One may think of the Council having general powers such as a university council, with the committees being similar to faculty boards. The Committee for Teacher Education has persons with appropriate experience in the teaching and teacher education profession. This committee reports to the Committee for Academic Affairs, which takes overall responsibility for matters of academic quality. The subject committees, such as for teacher education, are responsible for validation, review and approval of courses at associated institutions. Each sub-committee has a chairman, who serves

on the Council as an *ex officio* member, and about twenty members of standing in higher education circles.

The committees establish subject panels or boards in each subject discipline. Each subject board has 12-30 persons serving on it and its chairman serves on the committee that constituted it. Thus in any degree course, where many subject boards may consider a course proposal, there is a link from a wide grassroots representivity through the chairmanship line to the top policy-making level of the Council. It is the committee which draws up a board to perform a specific task of validation. Members of subject boards and validation boards act as individuals, not as delegates, even if they are nominees of a college academic board or a professional body. University members are welcomed as they represent the advice of established academic opinion. Care is taken to avoid control of a board by any particular pressure group. There is a deliberate and distinct representational element in the constitution of all boards and committees. It is the subject boards which really uphold the standards and reputation of the Council degrees. They do not act prescriptively, but play a strong advisory role and provide a forum for curriculum development. These boards act on behalf of the subject committees.

The role of the subject committees is to:

(i) advise the Council through the Committee of Academic Affairs on matters of policy, regulation and standards in their field of study, for example education;

(ii) enhance the quality of courses *via* policy, advisory and information documents, for example;

(iii) validate and review courses;

(iv) provide members for a validation board;

(v) approve external examiners;

(vi) receive and discuss reports on validation and review of courses on a national basis, and then act on information by developing projects or initiating studies;

(vii) advise on matters of academic quality;

(viii) maintain liaison with professional bodies;

(ix) encourage research; and

(x) nominate specialist advisers.

(CNAA 1987:23-24)

The Council maintains a register of specialist subject advisers who may be called upon where necessary, such as in course validation and review in accredited and associated institutions, advising on the appointment of external examiners, and contributing to the gathering, formulation and dissemination of subject information on a national basis. These subject advisers may be members of subject committees and many have experience as external examiners.

The specialist subject advisers are supported by subject officers, who organise the validation and review of courses and assist in this process on behalf of the subject

committees. They assist in gathering and disseminating subject information, advise institutions on request and organise national meetings, including meetings of external examiners in their area of expertise.

External examiners are at the centre of the peer review validation procedure. Member institutions put forward names of possible external examiners for approval by the subject committees, advised by the subject officers and specialist advisers. External examiners ensure that students are fairly assessed and that the awards conferred in each institution are comparable in standard. Once an external examiner is appointed to an institution, he is responsible to that institution and makes an annnual report to the institution which is referred to the Council, and acted upon if he is concerned about standards of assessment and performance. Institutions must demonstrate in their annual reports that they have acted upon the external examiners' reports.

A Board of Examiners at each institution has the sole responsibility to confer academic awards. The external examiners belong to the Board. The awards are controlled by the CNAA but the administration thereof may be handled by the institution and bear its name. Controls are rigorously applied by the Council in this regard.

The Council maintains two kinds of relations with institutions. Associated institutions have a dependent status with the Council, whilst accredited institutions are given a relatively free hand, subject to reviews every 5-7

years. Accredited institutions are subject to an Instrument of Accreditation with its required controls that:

- council policies will be implemented;
- council regulations will be followed;
- external examiners will be approved by the Council;
- student appeal and student grievance arrangements must be functional;
- an annual report must be submitted to the Council;
- reports are required on validation and review mechanisms within the institution;
- definitive coursework documents must be provided; and
- the Council retains the right to call for information or reports, or to intervene.

(CNAA 1987:17)

In return, the Council supports its accredited institutions by providing policy and briefing papers which indicate national concerns and issues, and it provides a national support system.

An accredited institution is evaluated for renewal of its accredited status every 5-7 years on the basis of the performance of its arrangements for maintaining and enhancing the quality of its courses in terms of structure, content, delivery and outcomes.

The Council is financed by student fees and a government grant. The fear is that public financing could result in a loss of autonomy and independence, or a lower standing in the eyes of the academic community. The members of the Council, committees and boards work on a voluntary basis, being paid expenses only. There is a paid secretariat.

The Council established a Committee for Institutions which is responsible for the quinquennial visits. It ensures that the review procedures complement the course validation process and foster the development of relations between the Council and the associated institutions. This committee also negotiates variations proposed by the institutions in the validation procedures.

The CNAA and other universities are responsible for academic accreditation, whilst the Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) is responsible for the professional accreditation of teachers. It is envisaged in the collegiate structure being proposed that these functions would be realised as a joint function, carried out by the Collegium.

Another administrative schism occurs between funding and accreditation. The CNAA (Pratt in Shattock 1983:125) acknowledges the validity of the argument that planning and funding cannot be satisfactorily done without taking matters of academic quality fully into account. Planning and funding inevitably involve making academic judgements. There is a need to separate the roles of course validation (i.e. standards) with academic judgement (i.e. course value for

money) as to whether a course is in fact needed, because decisions about the allocation of public resources occur between competing interests and are therefore political in nature. For this reason, it is not the place of a validating body to determine which courses should run at which institutions. There would be objections to the concentration of academic power if the CNAA and NAB (the national funding body) were in fact one body. Although functions will occur together in the collegiate structures being proposed, the Collegium will act on instructions from the Department of Education, which will set the broad policy parameters. It is interesting to note that the DES has assessors on the CNAA. They are entitled to attend and speak, but not to vote at meetings of the Council or of its committees or of boards, panels or other bodies constituted or appointed by the Council.

The Lindop Committee in reviewing the CNAA achievement recognised the role that it had played in establishing national and generally accepted standards and a level of competence in the public sector, but felt there was a need for a less formal system. They felt that institutions should be expected and encouraged to take full responsibility for their academic standards, that the system should recognise and accommodate differences between institutions, and that the prominence given to validation should be proportionate to its significance. Other alternatives to the established CNAA system were envisaged by the Committee (Pittendrigh 1986:66):

(i) an institution's own academic board could be responsible for course validation, with the CNAA still approving and reviewing courses *via* regular visitation;

(ii) some institutions could become entirely self validating whilst others continued with external validation, but with a broader range of delegated power;

(iii) CNAA validation could remain, but with streamlined procedures;

(iv) CNAA could validate groups of courses rather than each individual course;

(v) the institution as a whole could be validated by the CNAA; and

(vi) the institution could validate its own work and award its own degrees. This self validation would amount to an accreditation of the whole institution with its own charter.

The CNAA does offer post graduate degrees up to the PhD level with an emphasis on applied research. Colleges latterly have been permitted to offer masters degrees, with the M Phil being a research degree, whilst the MA and MSc are post graduate courses offered *via* the traditional lecture and examination method. The epithet 'applied' in teacher education implies the realisation that college courses are different in nature, content and objectives from traditional university disciplines. The emergence of professional or teaching studies courses in the CNAA degrees

has been noteworthy. There has been a concern to foster the professional distinctiveness of teacher education. Practice teaching may count towards the attainment of a degree. The 'applied' approach is also evident in the validation of in-service courses for teachers.

8.7.4 PROCESS OF COURSE VALIDATION

The process of validation of a degree course is lengthy and searching. If a college wishes to propose a new degree course, it initially obtains approval for the course from its own academic board or Senate. Approval is also obtained in principle from the LEA and the Regional Advisory Council for Further Education (RAC) to mount such a course. If local needs justify such a course, permission is granted for the college to approach the CNAA. The matter is also cleared with the DES. The college then prepares a submission to the CNAA proposing the course in the light of the guidelines which are laid down. Details provided include the rationale for the course, its structure, curriculum and syllabus, a bibliography for each course, teaching methods envisaged, assessment criteria for the course, resourcing provisions, management mechanisms and staffing, including their qualifications and experience.

The Education Committee of the CNAA constitutes a special board to consider the course on its merits. Members of this board, the subject board(s) and the Education Committee visit the college to discuss the proposed course with the staff, who will be responsible for the course, and to

examine the college facilities. Together they examine the course structure, content and methods of assessment. Note is taken if there are adequate facilities and whether the staff members have sufficient expertise to conduct the course. The Visitation Committee reports in writing on the outcome. Revisions may be required to the proposals. Generally they are tougher initially when establishing a colleges' credentials. If a course is approved, external examiners are appointed and the college runs the course on its own without interference until a quinqennial institutional review. The CNAA hopes that the college will show itself capable of acting on its own and being self sufficient in its resources.

The features of the CNAA validation process are held up to be (Alexander 1984:74-75):

- institutional integrity, autonomy and independence;
- concern for documentary evidence and statement;
- reliance on visitation and discussion;
- dependence on collective wisdom; and
- breadth of concern for the overall works of the institution.

8.7.5 BASIS OF COURSE VALIDATION

The CNAA procedures in validation start from a consideration of the overall justification, coherence and interdependence

of components (Alexander 1984:80). The object is to promote coherence, rather than permitting fragmentation, by emphasizing the maintenance of the course focus on educational studies. This thematic approach enables the achievement of a spiral of studies over the course period. A decided advantage is the ability to vary the bias more towards the academic or the professional aspects as required. Instead of prescribing a model for a course, the principles of 'focus' and 'concern' are invoked in assessing a course. The course designs are not specified but regulations and conditions for the awarding of Council degrees are specified in detail. Similarly the teaching methods and forms of assessment are not prescribed, but they are judged for suitability in the validation process. The Council's style of knowledge management is to offer firm support and guidance for validation approaches, without being prescriptive.

The following aspects are considered carefully.

- CNAA attach the greatest importance to staff qualities. They consider the qualifications and experience of the staff who will teach the course, their research activities and publications. The staff are required to be imaginative and of high intellectual calibre, as well as being good teachers. The coordination and leadership of the staff as a team is also important. There should be opportunities for staff to further their knowledge of their subject and develop their teaching methods, and this applies especiallly to new members of staff joining a college. Teaching

programmes should not be unduly heavy. The CNAA naturally requires a sufficient number of staff of sufficient calibre in each of the principal branches of study of the course, to form an adequate nucleus for the course to begin. Additional staff may be required before a course is considered viable.

- The quality of academic life is assessed by considering the college as a whole, including its policy, ethos and environment. In terms of infra-structural resources, CNAA will assess factors such as library facilities, technical, clerical and administrative staff, teaching accommodation, laboratories and workshops, equipment, fianances and what the money is expended on (eg books and journals). More subtle assessments include a consideration of the academic structure by which the staff and students can participate in policy-making within the college, thereby exercising their full academic responsibility. For example, an assessment is made as to whether a college can uphold and maintain its quality of teaching and the standards of the examinations, by acting collectively through their academic board or Senate. The environment of the institution should be sympathetic to the objectives and requirements of study, stimulating wide-ranging interests and rational debate. The staff and students should come into contact with other students and the wider academic community. Scholarly and professional activities should be encouraged within an academic community. Management style is considered whereby physical, financial and personnel resources are allocated

and used optimally, priorities determined and major issues are open to discussion.

- The submission documents are scrutinised in detail in order to ensure that the proposals are backed by careful thinking and adequate resources. The standard of work in a subject at an institution is assessed. The curriculum and syllabus is not only reviewed in terms of content, but other factors are considered such as the time-tabled hours *per* subject and their breakdown into lectures, tutorials and practical work. Book lists are important and statements on the objectives of the course are also considered. Other facets assessed are the admission standards, practical teaching arrangements and the arrangements for assessment, including the external examiner role and function. The college must demonstrate that it will ultimately certificate its students on the basis of a clear scheme of assessment that is fair and well founded. The examinations regulations and requirements must be clearly established, not arbitrary. They must test different kinds of cognitive skills, such as recall, understanding the principles, and the ability to analyse and evaluate. Overall, the evidence of college self evaluation in all the above facets is important, as validation does not apply for a moment in time; it is an ongoing dynamic process which is ultimately the responsibility of the college. Mc Nay and Cormick (1982:45) specify the CNAA rationale in this regard:

> "The course, together with its operation and teaching, must be subject to regular monitoring and evaluation by the staff teaching it and generally by the institution.

> The object of this monitoring and evaluation is to maintain the standard of the course, and to improve, wherever possible, upon the means whereby the objectives of the course can be achieved".

The ultimate test of any course is the outcome of the studies in terms of the student. The mechanics of a course are one matter; the educational process and outcome is another. The CNAA holds that the primary aim of any programme of studies must be the development of the students' intellectual and imaginative skills and powers. Knowledge, plus increased intellectual and imaginative development must be presumed by the content of the programme and the way it is taught. A greater understanding and competence, and a higher level of intellectual and creative performance, go beyond the mere learning of skills, techniques and facts themselves. A programme of studies must stimulate an enquiring analytical and creative approach, encouraging independent judgement and critical self awareness in the student. The skills of clear communication and logical argument are inherent in higher education. The ability to see relationships between what is learned and actual situations is important. A student should be able to see his studies in a broader perspective, appreciating attitudes and modes of thought outside the realm of his own discipline, and he must have an informed awareness of factors which affect the social and physical environment. In short, a student must be educated upon the completion of his course.

Thus an attempt is made to evaluate the course *per se*, and not just the written statements describing the course. The

process of validation itself is considered to have an instrinsic value in that it requires a high level of self justification. In having to justify the content and approach of a proposed course, there is the stimulation of having to think matters through for oneself and to examine critically one's assumptions and objectives prior to presenting them to one's colleagues. This process promotes autonomy as a college has to plan its own curricula models and strategies for submission, develop a coherent rationale, critically appraise itself and its resources, set objectives, cultivate professional interpersonal relations and contacts and conceptualise its policy. This process is an important factor in the CNAA scheme of validation, as the process is required to be continuous within an institution, with periodic reappraisals with the Council.

Courses are approved initially for a period of 5 years. They are then reviewed and reconsidered. This is not necessarily a full validation process however. Once a course has been initially validated and established, the college is free to pursue the course unimpeded, except for the role of the external examiners and the fulfilment of any conditions which may have been attached to the validation. However a college continues to receive regular visits from Council representatives, where they scrutinise the college as a whole, including its academic structures, procedures and facilities, in order to maintain an oversight on course standards. This system of progress review visits is not intended to be inquisitional revalidation visits, but rather

to enable the Council and the colleges to discuss the progress and any problems of the course. A college is free to modify approved courses within limits to accommodate improvements.

8.7.6 DEVELOPMENTS AND REVISED PERSPECTIVES

In its early days, the CNAA initial validation process was rigorous, with voluminous documentation and controls. With experience, and perhaps because its credentials are well established, the need was felt to move from paternalism to a partnership relationship between the Council and the colleges. The emphasis should be a concern for mutual exploration rather than on winning a confrontation. The needs of validation would be better met by a sharing of concerns rather than by putting on a good front. Alexander (1984:80) expressed this sentiment thus:

> "An openness to shared responsibility, awareness of tension, and concern for development, are of greater importance than superficial conformity or...consensus".

In order to achieve this state of affairs, both the Council and the colleges had to participate in a modified way. A change in focus from the content and teaching methods of a course to the management of the course was felt to be advisable, as it was the management which affected the quality and adventurousness of the teaching and enabled the monitoring of courses of consistent quality. How to assess this aspect, and what criteria would be valid, are open to debate, but the intention is felt to be correct. The need was felt to:

> "... balance continuing control with sensitivity to the growing stature and confidence of institutions validated by Council" (Lynch 1979:27).

The institutional obligation then was to regularly monitor its courses, with a periodic review in greater depth. A climate of self appraisal and evaluation would involve a systematic review by students and staff. Their perceptions and experience were relevant in this process of feedback, allowing for a progressive review and revision of resources, methods, syllabuses and assessment procedures. The external review mechanisms would be internalised in this manner. If the Council had confidence in the overall teaching competence and good college management, it could delegate its academic responsiblities more fully to the colleges. This approach led to colleges being accredited, rather than associated with the Council.

The Council for its part felt that when a new course was to be considered for validation, consultation should commence earlier in the process. Instead of sitting back and waiting to see what a college would offer, the knowledge and experience of the Council could be tapped by the college, with the proviso that the college would still rely on its own procedures for its course development. In this way the Council would act as a national centre and focus for information and intelligence on curriculum development, course design, learning strategies, student assessment, performance criteria, credit transfer and other matters of common concern (CNAA 1987:7).

Not only does the CNAA delegate the monitoring of the quality of courses to the institutions themselves, but it has shifted the emphasis to output measurements and the external examiner system. Its previous obsession with inputs, such as course design, resources and the qualifications of academic staff, were no doubt of value in the early days, but Perry (1987:347-8) believes them to have been a positive deterrent to proper debate about output measurements.

The new schemata has meant a move from the inquisitional nature of judging college proposals to an emphasis on the need to be frank about worries and concerns, rather than attempting to hide them for fear of judgement. The 'partnership in validation' approach means less time being spent on paperwork and the superfluous revalidation of existing courses,and more time on dialogue. But the bogey of ensuring comparability of courses causes problems. Inevitably, at some level, Council regulations must limit the kind of course proposals in some way. However the delineation of course structures, examination and assessment procedures, admission requirements and practice teaching objectives do not ensure comparability of courses. What is needed is confidence in the process by which the degrees are obtained. Pratt (in Shattock 1983:123) notes:

> "Neither a host of technical detail over regulations or procedures governing the acceptable pattern of course structures or the philosophy of courses will ensure the comparability of standards... The Council can maintain standards only by establishing confidence in its own processes by judging the validity of courses".

The Council should, to realise this end, maintain standards by ensuring self regulation. This could be accomplished by a college committee to ensure that the arrangements for assessment are adequate, fair to the students, command public confidence, and are apt for the award for which they are designed. The body responsible for assessment, its membership and terms of reference, should be known and mechanisms should be built in for student appeals and reveiw by the academic board of the college. Such mechanisms should be subject to the approval of the Council, but regulations should not be made by the Council.

Some encroachment on the absolute autonomy of the colleges is inevitable, but the Council can still make a meaningful contribution to the integrity of the college and assist in enhancing their particular ethos.

8.7.7 CRITIQUE OF CNAA AS A VALIDATION MECHANISM

Having a validation system, at all, is an acknowledgement that the colleges need supervision in a kind of tutelage system. Lynch (1979:77) from a social analysis perspective differentiates between the middle class institutions which can be trusted, the universities, and the institutions with working class roots, which are not the subject of 'espistemological trust' and which continue to be externally validated, such as the colleges and polytechnics. In this way the establishment is seen to be perpetrating its control of knowledge, by breeding dependence and effectively controlling what will be taken to be legitimate knowledge

and who will be permitted to distribute it. One of the dangers of an assessment system is that it can be readily linked to a financial provisioning system by politicians, thereby providing them with a powerful sanctioning and mandating mechanism.

Apart from this fundamental criticism, which applies to validation in general and the CNAA in particular, the types of controls, the mind set implied by these controls, and their hidden agendas, have been the subject of criticism. There is concern that the control function of the CNAA will result in the 'politics of appointments'. Validation is in essence a conflict rather than a partnership. A lobby comprising an 'old boy network' is possible amongst the validators and the external examiners, both of these groups of officers wielding significant powers. There is no accountability for the expertise, experience and qualifications of those validating the courses of others. They may be appointed more for their 'political' outlook, which does not only include a party political orientation, but a CNAA political stance.

The process of validation inevitably represents constraints, in the guise of regulations governing structural parameters and guidelines for desirable practices. For example, the CNAA B Ed is required to include child development and psychology, philosophy, sociology, history and curriculum theory. This may be desirable, in fact this requirement may be found universally in the western world teacher education

courses, but it still represents habit becoming the basis of policy. (Alexander 1979:32)

It is held that a course should be judged on its own claims and with reference to the Council's knowledge about the college as a whole and the quality and experience of its staff, but this assessment is conducted by persons who are human and subject to preconceptions. For example, courses already validated by the Council may, perhaps subconsciously, set the nature, style and range of what sort of courses they are prepared to approve, thereby imprisoning new courses in the existing operational definitions of what may count as a valid course. In South African terms, would a course predicated on a people's education philosophy be acceptable within the existing Christian National Education genre?

It has been noted (Pratt in Shattock 1983:127) that the purpose of education is to achieve a change in the person being educated, as evidenced in new or more developed skills, abilities and knowledge. In this light, the CNAA emphasis on inputs to courses has been criticised, and the Council has tried to respond to correct this problem. Some feel that the move away from specific course evaluation to institutional validation, in terms of broad programmes of endeavour, is a move in the right direction, as the broader picture is being assessed rather than the minutiae of courses and institutions. Too much concern with detail can mask the important assessments based on academic principles.

Specific technical problems with the process of validation

and its implementation by the CNAA have been highlighted. The problem of staff turnover at a small college, or losing a key member of staff, could affect the validation process. The transient nature of the contact between the Council and a college may be a problem, especially when the number of constituent colleges, and courses they offer, is on a large scale. The rotation of members of the visitation committees can create a problem of continuity and change in requirements. There is a need for changes in the committees however, with some experienced persons and some new blood ensuring continuity without a sterility of sameness.

On the other hand, credit must be given for the advantages and achievements associated with the CNAA validation process. The type of courses offered tend to be more innovative, yet standards are maintained because the proposals have to be anticipated and defended before knowledgeable persons external to the college. A wider range of subjects, including a number of specialist options, on a broader and more integrated basis, representing a greater variety of approaches in course construction in initial teacher training, have resulted from the CNAA process of validation. For example, school experience can be an integral part of a course, or a course maybe specific to a defined age range. A considerable variation in the courses offered has been noted with regard to course structure, subjects offered and student electives. Variables are found *inter alia* in college term units (three terms, two semesters), in the nature of the course (consecutive,

concurrent), whether part-time or full-time, modular/unit approaches and multi-disciplinary studies.

An important aspect of CNAA course validation is that lecturers do not have to teach courses which are controlled by others, whether universities or Education Departments. At the same time, formal and informal contacts afford opportunities for staff development. Forum opportunities are provided for the exchange of ideas and the development of the lecturer's thinking. Whether by proposing a new course, or serving as a member of a committee or a board, a range of insights and understandings are generated, which would not occur in a university approach to new courses, where resources are often the prime matter of concern (Alexander 1984:75)

These advantages are developed during the CNAA process of continuing involvement between the Council and a college, or within a college as is required by the Council. Structures are also brought into existence to realise the Council's requirements for ongoing contact, with planning and decision-making bodies being evolved in the colleges. These structures then ensure that a climate of discourse ensues, within a search for course integrity, cohesion and interrelatedness. Active staff development and research initiatives are also engendered and promoted in the CNAA approach.

The Lindop Committee (in Pittendrigh 1987:68) summed up the CNAA achievement thus:

> "...(to) compare public sector institutions today with what they were 20 years ago is to witness the effect which external validation has painstakingly and often painfully carried out...the development, in other words, of a strong self-critical academic body, constantly seeking external criticism and advice".

The CNAA approach to validation has been evaluated on external criteria as well, as a practical and economic means of extending the provision of higher education, which pays attention to cost effectiveness, social accountability and consumer demands (le Roux 1980:319). As a low capital project, it can permit a move from an elitist to a mass tradition of graduate higher education and it is an important means whereby teacher education can move towards sharing in the responsiblity for quality teacher provision. In South African terms, such a structure encapsulated in a collegiate model, can utilise the existing infra-structure to provide courses specific to, and appropriate for, teacher education, at a cost below that of the traditional universities, and for a large number of teachers.

8.7.8 CATE AND CNAA

The Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) was established in 1984 to advise the Secretary of State on the approval of initial teacher training courses. It was required to review the existing courses and to consider any new courses. The object was to oversee the quality and content of the preparation of teachers at institutions *via* a system of inspection by HMI, followed by an accreditation process devised specifically by CATE. Thus CATE has a power base to influence education policy on

teacher education. It is under governmental control and, as a central structure, it is inviolable (Adelman 1986:177). It assesses employability, in addition to CNAA or the other university assessments, and calls the training institutions to account. The CNAA and CATE have separate structures and methods, both assessing teacher education in their separate ways.

There has been much reservation as to how NAB, CATE and the CNAA will function differentially and in relation to each other, and how each will evolve in relation to each other. The collegiate concept will, in effect, be an amalgam of all three of these bodies, whereas in Britain they act independently. The CNAA (or a university) underwrites the academic credentials resulting in qualified teacher status decisions and NAB controls the administrative and financing aspects.

8.7.9 UNIVERSITY VALIDATION VERSUS CNAA VALIDATION

A CNAA type of validation process can be seen to be superior to validation which is encompassed in a college/university structure. Universities are more expensive organisations in terms of costs. Validating college courses is a large administrative burden, which detracts from the university's main task of research and advanced studies. Perhaps for this reason, university supervision has tended to be weak, rationalised under the guise of 'academic freedom', with an attendent risk of falling standards because the job of validation has been superficially done.

Universities are not specifically geared to college needs. A university is concerned with academic and research matters; a college with a professional/vocational training, albeit with academic and research components. Freer (1983:68) notes that:

> "College courses are different in nature, content and objectives from traditional university disciplines, therefore university validation is liable to disturb the coherence of college courses and the autonomy of colleges will be impinged upon".

For example, university approval of a full course is likely to be comprised of a set of sub-approvals by separate subject departments or faculties, without a rigorous overview of the course as an integral unit. The CNAA approach is to see the course structure as a whole, rather than adopting a piecemeal approach. A college is required to work on the interrelatedness of its course structure and demonstrate this to the CNAA committees. It seems strange to attempt to validate a college course against dissimilar university courses, which are not themselves validated in the same way, when the Council validation involves a validation against a wide range of similar courses in a corporate and ongoing experimental manner.

One of the outcomes of validation by an institution such as the CNAA, that underwrites a variety of degree and diploma courses, is that questions are raised as to the nature of particular courses. What actually constitutes a degree course becomes relevant in such circumstances. Is it the knowledge component of the discipline, the personal intellectual development or preparation for professional

employment, that marks out a degree award from a diploma award? On the other hand, the degree award could be constituted *via* an additional period of study, or additional time being required, or a difference in the quality of endeavour over a specific time period.

These questions are relevant to the collegiate university concept, which is based on the CNAA idea. The major differences between the collegiate concept and the CNAA are that the Collegium will represent corporation in administrative matters, as well as in academic and professional matters. This corporation will ensure a primary corporate collegiate autonomy, with individual institutional autonomy arising out of the corporate autonomy and being protected and ensured in the corporation. An institution's courses will be subject to an 'ideas audit' as a form of peer review, which is typical of the CNAA structures and procedures. The collegiate concept will mandate teacher certification representing a qualified teacher status.

8.7.10 MODULAR COURSE STRUCTURES

Some of the CNAA degree courses are offered on a modular, or unit basis, and the CNAA experience in this regard is relevant to the proposed collegiate model in South Africa. The ideal degree course is probably structured as a unity, with courses being integrated in a global or holistic way, and with the interconnectivity and interrelationships between aspects of the course being well considered, specifically articulated and conciously implemented. Teacher

education in Southern Africa is so varied, given the 17 Education Departments and gross differences in matters such as resource provisioning, and staff qualifications and experience, that the advantage of the corporate collegiate structure would be a gradual evolution of the whole system to a higher level at which all colleges would eventually function. In the interim period, a mechanism is needed to build on current college strengths and work on deficits, without detracting from those colleges with more experience and a higher level of excellence. A modular course would enable this to happen in the interim phase.

There are drawbacks to a modular system. Modules can lead to a superficiality of treatment and the various modules may be so different as to be incompatible. The student would have to make the intellectual connections between the different parts of the course on his own, because of a lack of overall integration. Appropriate sequencing is not always possible and course coordination may be a problem. Different modules may not be of a comparable standard. Administrative problems are also commonly encountered. However, many of these problems are currently encountered in degree studies to some extent as well in the South African universities, without detracting from the degreeworthiness of their qualifications.

The advantages of a modular degree system are considerable. A wide range of options can be offered, combining both broad and specialised modules within a degree course. Credits can be accumulated over time so that the degree is obtained on a

cumulative basis. If modules become outdated or are unsuccessful, a piecemeal substitution of courses is possible, with the minimum of disruption to the system as a whole. Because of the free choice offered to the individual, modular studies tend to be more student centered, which increases the motivation of the student. The objectives of the individual units are more readily comprehensible to the student, aiding in his understanding. It is possible in a modular degree system to rationalise the use of resources. In assessment, the student can register for the amount of work he feels he can handle if he is studying on a part-time or correspondence basis. It is also easier to recoup failures, especially when moving from full-time study to part-time study, or between institutions and programmes. Post graduate degrees are also possible on a modular basis.

The facility to recognise University of South Africa courses in a collegiate degree, would be a prime advantage, given the circumstances of teacher education in South Africa and the need for teachers to develop their academic and professional credentials and qualifications. If a college only has some courses validated, a collegiate system on a modular basis would enable easy accreditation and the student could leave a college with a diploma, which also represents a few degree credits which can be added to by correspondence or part-time study over time.

The following sections, on standards, inputs, controls and institutional performance review, are based extensively on Moodie (1986) and Gimeno & Ibanez (1981).

8.8 QUALITY AND STANDARDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The guarantee of quality in education is usually in the form of an assessment as to whether the education is 'up to standard'. Standards can be based on entirely different criteria, depending on who is appealing to standards. Quality education in Britain in the last few years has come to mean 'value for money', where the cost effectiveness of their education is important, with less emphasis on the content of the education. This level-of-funding approach is predicated upon fianancial criteria more than on educational criteria. In the United States, the politics of education has been in the ascendancy and so quality higher education centres around concepts such as equity, equality and access (Moodie 1988:5).

It is evident that guidelines are needed in teacher education to define more precisely what we mean when we talk of concepts such as standards, criteria, quality and excellence. Williams (in Moodie 1986:42) perceives of a standard as a fixed scale of reference against which other phenomena of a similar type can be assessed. It is an ideal against which we can compare. It may be a metaphorical examplar, giving a means to measure a dimension such as education. Judgement has to be exercised as to whether an instance of a phenomenon, such as a teaching qualification, meets, or falls short of, a particular yardstick. The empirical precision suggested by the use of words such as standard or criteria implies a universally accepted measure akin to "a metre is .000001 of the distance between the pole

and the equator", yet in education this level of standard is not possible. Rather one finds the standard of a university degree being defined in a very imprecise and unquantifiable manner as:

> "...a guarantee that the holder (of the degree) has attained to a standard of education which justifies his employment in any one of many professions or occupations. It is at the same time evidence of diligence in study, power of concentrating attention, and intelligence in interpreting the bearings of facts" (Silver, in Moodie 1986:9).

Standard here hardly refers to a measurable quality or ideal. A statement that "the standards of degrees has fallen" is ambiguous. It may mean that many persons are getting degrees, thereby devaluing the market value or status of the degree in society. It may mean that average students are attaining the high standards required. It may mean that the requirements for attaining a degree have weakened. Quality does not mean meeting specified high standards *per se*, in fact standards may inhibit quality attainment in music composition or art, for example, where quality art may set new standards rather than merely approximating old standards.

Yet society will demand standards and quality in teacher education. Teachers have enormous power and influence on the young, and ultimately on society, so the public will legitimately and increasingly claim an external accountability based on observable indicators of performance. If the public and the government are to evaluate teacher education properly, it is important that such judgements should be informed and well founded. Society

and employers may have legitimate concerns which differ from those within the teacher education profession, and these extraneous demands may conflict with the profession's overriding commitment to what it perceives as academic quality. Williams (in Moodie 1986:45) poses two reasons for the subjectivity of the criteria used in the evaluation of complex phenomenon, such as teacher education:

(i) it is a phenomenon with no widely agreed criteria of what constitutes quality; and

(ii) it is a complex phenomenon measurable along many different dimensions.

Teacher education does not lend itself to evaluation by reference to relatively simple and impersonal criteria. Any criteria named will be arbitrary to some extent and the value judgements based thereon subjective in some way. Judgement is required in the absence of certainty, and the characteristics on which the judgement is made should be declared and assessed along with the judgement. This is especially so as no general agreement on criteria is possible, and so consensus must be reached openly to avoid bias. The 'judges' should have a recognisable degree of competence, knowledge and integrity, with a track record that establishes their credentials as a sound judges of such matters. A 'judge' of standards, or quality, or excellence, should be able to assess and judge on the basis of his own knowledge and experience. Peer review permits judgement based on internalised norms.

Yet such an appraisal system can readily become a mechanism of control, if the judgement of an expert colleague perpetuates a system by promoting compliance to the colleague's experience and vision, thus negating important aspects of professional standards, such as change, evolution and a creative interpretation of what is required to be up to standard and provide quality education. Thus it may be better for expert judges to stand above the conflict and make decisions which are impartial, yet based on special knowledge, rather than vested or special interests. In any consideration of an expert judge system, the selection of the judges is one crucial element; the other is the process by which standards are set and the mechanisms of evaluation. The expert judge system implies that the control of standards will be in the hands of wise, comprehending, intelligent and broadly experienced persons, tempered by the realisation that their judgements must inevitably be subjective and fallible. Possibly procedures should be implemented to evaluate the work of the expert judge as well? A system of debated and shared views by informed persons, publically stated and defended, may provide a reasonably reliable index of quality.

The criteria chosen to assess performance may have a subtle effect on the whole process of standardisation. There is a danger that the definition of performance indicators and their narrow interpretation will distort the process of teacher education, defeating the very ends standardisation is hoping to achieve. None of the process or performance

criteria are sufficiently developed or proven yet, and their limitations similarly are not fully understood or sufficiently taken into account when they are used. In setting limits within which appraisal criteria should fall, it is held (Moodie 1986:102-3) that such criteria should be:

- beneficial;

- fair;

- comprehensive;

- valid;

- open;

- effective; and,

- practicable.

If we apply these criteria in terms of the product (student) being turned out by the teacher education institutions, we are looking at factors such as the quality of his experience in taking the course and his subsequent performance in the classroom. A factor such as the sensitivity of a new teacher towards pupils and their needs, is difficult to gauge in terms of the above criteria, laudable as they may be. If one considers the academic component of a teacher's education, one is looking for, *inter alia*, originality of thought, depth of understanding, clarity of argument, elegance of insight, the ability to organise material, the vigorous use of evidence and argument, and an ability to transcend immediate purposes.

Quality is an absolute concept, a golden mean. Excellence on the other hand is a relative concept. A six year old may play the piano excellently for a six year old, without playing particularly well in adult terms. Academics tend to see excellence in non-instrumental terms, whilst administrators aim to achieve a proper balance between quality, opportunity and cost. Yet in a public sector endeavour, such as teacher education, where one is accountable to external agencies, conscious attempts must be made to agree collectively on the criteria for appraisal of the students, the staff and the institution itself, in order to satisfy the expectations of those who have created and sustained the institutions. In 'top down' higher education systems, such as in the provision of teacher education, validation, and access to courses are crucial instruments of national control.

In Britain, for example, the whole question and emphasis on standards has arisen in recent times because higher education has become very costly. There has been an attempt to discriminate between institutions and activities on the basis of their relative merit according to desirable degrees of excellence. The implication is that the primary objectives of teacher education can co-exist with quality requirements and value for money considerations. With the expansion in higher education, queries of quality came to the fore. The belief was that one could accommodate large numbers, whilst retaining standards, quality and excellence (however these are defined) and realise economies of scale.

The pursuit of excellence became a striving to improve quality and to raise standards. Standards were felt in a way to be directly related to competition for places. There was a misconception that higher education standards represented something absolute, even relatively permanent, and almost immutable. Yet there was also the realisation in some quarters that standards do not represent quality, and that a variety of standards was possible, which all represented quality in some way.

Academic success is not the only criteria by which to evaluate the relative costs and benefits when decisions have to be made on the level and direction of funding. Some feel that a combination of expert judges and market forces are the least arbitrary ways of allocating resources in higher education, whereby the experts establish the criteria and the markets allocate the resources on the basis of criteria (Williams in Moodie 1986:31).

An important point in funding and the quality of institutions, particularly in South Africa, is the relationship between a shortage of resources, such as funding and trained manpower, and low standards. Admittedly quality output is, to an extent, a function of the amount of resources available and the way the available resources are used. But there is a spiral effect, in that a low level of resources affects the quality of staff recruited and the morale of the staff who are employed. If resources are a reward for good performance and a spur to achieving an even better performance, this may work in a situation of equal

and optimum intitial funding. If however, resources have been inadequate, standards can suffer. Thus some will argue for more resources to improve their standards, whilst others will argue that their standards are good and they deserve more resources based on their track record.

The quality of the staff is also a prime concern in setting standards, followed by the quantity of staff to permit the quality staff not to be overloaded and become dysfunctional.

The quality of the students is also important in considerations of standards, and this is likely to be related to other factors, such as the good name of the institution, the nature of the courses and the quality and quantity of the physical plant and teaching resources. The use made of these resources is an important factor in the achievement of excellence. In any attempt to improve standards, selection procedures of staff and students, development of academic and managerial skills, as well as the available resources, will affect the outcome. Put differently, pouring money into an institution with poor standards will not, *per se*, guarantee improved standards.

The quality of teacher education in South Africa can not be seen purely as a financial problem. The collegiate concept aims at developments in staffing, management and resource allocation and utilisation in a corporate manner through a unitary agency. Such a system will help to quell the anxiety about the standards which would prevail in an expanding system of teacher education provision, especially as the

system becomes unified, and the divisive structures of the past are dismantled. Such disquiet would be likely to occur as the results of years of disproportionate funding are addressed, especially within a climate of expectation that matters should change virtually immediately. This process of rapid change will involve unequal institutions, different systems of awards, a variety of curricula and explicit public demands. Only a coordinated, national system, run by experts knowledgeable in the problems, and with the authority to implement systems of upgrading, can hope to succeed.

8.9 EXTERNAL CONTROLS IN INSTITUTIONAL QUALITY

Like teacher education, university education is more than the academic component alone. Silver (in Moodie 1986:19) describes the maintenance of standards at universities as guaranteeing that students on completion of their courses had:

> "...some familiarity with the basic ideas in a particular field of study, some experience of living and working with other people of similar ability in other fields of study and were at least equal to others who have done the same course in earlier years".

In such an assessment, it is necessary to measure the quality of the graduates, as well as the quality of the educational process. It is difficult to see how to evaluate or measure such criteria.

So institutions of higher education have therefore tended to concentrated on the assessment of academic criteria, especially *via* the examination. Early in this century in

South Africa, and in the last century in England and Wales, external examinations were used to assess, and therefore to guarantee, standards at institutions. Oxford and Cambridge colleges originally prepared their students for examinations that were conducted by institutions external to them (Moodie 1986:1). It was only after the second world war, that many of the universities acquired a charter to award their own degrees.

London University offered external degrees, without institutional membership. Before 1858 it had no visitorial authority, no right to inquire into the methods of teaching or to effect improvements. Thus the sole method by which the Senate could test the efficiency of the colleges, including their courses and the teaching thereof, was through a written examination of the students at a college. This represented the ultimate test of the quality of the education. The currency of these external degrees through London University was national and international. It was only in 1898 that the right of visitation to monitor efficiency, and the university approval in appointing lecturers to the external institution, was established.

With experience, as the external degree system evolved, London University would admit an institution to membership after considering factors such as its college government, the quality of the staff and their teaching conditions, the equipment and the standard of instruction. A drawback of such an external degree system was that the staff gained experience in teaching, but not in examining, at degree

level. When they came to a stage of being independent, this lack of experience was a serious problem.

As universities became more established, transitional arrangements geared towards obtaining a full charter consisted of students pursuing courses and syllabuses at the college, including taking examinations set by the college, the whole process being supervised and assessed by London University *via* external examinations.

An external examination system has decided drawbacks. Inevitably there are charges of examiners not being impartial and of an attitude of servitude arising from, and being fostered by, the supervision process. Coaching for examinations, rather than educating, is a problem with an external examination system. The validity of the system, purporting to set or maintain standards, is commonly questioned.

However in the early days of school and university examinations in South Africa, external examinations did fulfil a function. The Joint Matriculation Board External Examination had a standardising influence and it was a unifying factor in education. Malherbe (1977:429) held that "...it brought about a greater uniformity than would probably have been contemplated or tolerated under a system of avowed national control of education". Just as the JMB has safeguarded the standard of entrants to university, so the external examination system of the University of South Africa set a standard for those graduates who wished to

proceed to overseas universities. The external examination system overcomes the problem of a multiplicity of examining bodies, with variations over time and between these bodies.

The London University system of external examinations represented a trial and tutelage system, which allowed its associated colleges to gain strength, grow in size and develop their staff resources, which in time led to a greater autonomy for the fledging universities. Although the diversity and function of the courses may have been curtailed, it avoided the problem of 'anything being permitted' wherein the meaning and value of the qualifications would have been lost, as well as the loss of academic standards. Even within the binary system in Britain, the system created is aimed at "an equality of esteem" which is supposed to accompany a modest differentiation of function between the two sectors. However comparisons of standards and excellence will continue to be made. Trow (1987:290) stressed that where there is no possibility of competition, there may be greater possibilities for cooperation and this is a cardinal idea behind the proposal of a unitary collegiate system, based on mutual cooperation.

By 1903, Manchester University had realised that the choice of a professor was perhaps the most important factor in a university's endeavour to establish and maintain the highest standards of scholarship. Such thinking marked a development from an external examination system to an external examiner system, in order to guarantee equivalent, or at least

comparable, standards. Gradually the system evolved and developed from the external examination system of 'superior review' to the external examiner system of 'peer review'.

The external examiner system is predicated on the need for a common standard of excellence or achievement. It supposedly affords quality control and comparability of qualifications by maintaining standards of (examination) performance, although there is no empirical evidence as to its efficiency. Doubt exists as to the sufficiency of the performance indicators and there is no overriding check on the way it operates as a system of review. Yet the external examination system is the mainstay of university quality control. Church (1988:38) describes the process of the external examiner system:

> "The role of the external examiner is basically to ensure that final assessments are carried out both with due process and with equity and comparability. This is done by setting or checking proposed examination papers, participating in oral and other assessments and, above all, by undertaking a backup marking of a selection of scripts".

The peer review system was originally based on the concept of a collegiate model of communities of scholars with accountability to one's peers. It was an improvement on the external examination system, in that it had the advantages of relevance, flexiblity and an internalisation of the standards which were being evaluated.

The dangers inherent in the system are the possibility of encouraging conventionality and discouraging innovation. A peer review system can be tolerant of incompetence and

indolence, as a peer reviewer has no real compulsion on him to 'rock the boat' or be intrusive to the point of being judgemental of a sister institution or a fellow examiner.

It is interesting to note that when colleges in Britain were evaluated by universities, the hierarchical differences between the two sets of institutions seems to have been a factor in colleges opting for CNAA validation. It has been noted that only in teacher education did this form of external review occur and the process was not mutual, as colleges did not conduct a peer review of universities, as happens between universities, even when the universities offered qualifications for primary teachers.

Peer review does promote face to face dialogue on academic and professional course matters. Ultimately, the prime responsiblity for standards must rest with the higher education community. At the heart of all arrangements for the maintenance of standards must be the recognition that teaching and research are skilled professional activities that are rarely efficiently accomplished if they are subject to an intrusive external control. Peer view, *via* dialoguing, promotes the maintenance of standards in a partnership. The government has a responsiblity on behalf of the rest of society to ensure that the quality of higher education is patently maintained, yet any intrusive control process would detract from the maintenance of the desired standards. The government's role is perhaps to ensure that standardising mechanisms are brought into play, but they should be

administered and controlled by the educational institutions themselves.

The ultimate aim of tertiary institutions is to be self governing. No matter how benign and supportive an external review system is, the aim of any institution is to achieve the maximum degree of autonomy concomitant with providing an excellence of service and a recognised standard. In South Africa, teacher education institutions are shackled to universities and/or Education Departments in an inferior position and their self government is therefore curtailed. Ideally, institutions should collectively maintain the standards of their qualifications, including at degree and post graduate level, through a mechanism of self criticism and the use of an external examiner system, which buttresses the institution's self regulation. Obviously self regulation cannot be permitted willy nilly and there is a need for a rigorous selection of institutions which are to become self governing, as there is often little systematic evaluation thereafter apart from self regulation, although inspection for validation and accreditation purposes has become entrenched in Britain in teacher education and on a voluntary basis in America.

The advantages of self regulation are realised in the relevance of courses according to perceived local needs, the flexibility of response possible to changing circumstances, the capacity to assess performance according to many different criteria and the internalisation of these

criteria, thereby minimising internal conflict (Williams in Moodie 1986:37).

The major disadvantage of professional self regulation is that without effective collective or external monitoring, there is often a conflict between self regulation and self interest, as it is a common course to be indulgent to one another. The envisaged collegiate system model would provide 'effective collective monitoring', including a system of peer inspection based on the CNAA and NCATE models of ongoing validation. By monitoring, an internal and external process of continued oversight and control exercised on a systematic basis is envisaged, in order to ensure the achievement of the pre specified end of an acceptable standard of teacher education.

The inspection of higher education has been unpopular, especially from a university perspective, where it impinges on university autonomy. Inspection has been characterised as having a pronounced conservatism in terms of what constitutes good practice. There is also the fear of an over identification with government policy. The Society for Research in Higher Education (1983:140) queried whether a small group of individuals, however able, can make a significant contribution to the maintenance of quality, given the thousands of activities that comprise higher education. Yet a system of inspecting teacher education, including courses offered at universities, has been implemented in Britain.

Gibson (in Moodie 1986:chapter 9) has highlighted the salient features of inspecting education. The aim of inspection in education has been to appraise quality through routine visits and by means of formal inspections, which lead to published reports and surveys. This inspection is in addition to the institution's own individual and collective appraisal mechanisms, the peer review system enshrined in internal and external examination procedures and professional and academic validation. The HMI inspections are based on the criteria of close observations of the large variety of curricula which are reviewed in their widespread visitation process. This appraisal is based on judgements about the teaching and learning observed, student work and its assessment, staff schemes of work, course proposals and their rationale, and contextual matters such as human and material resources and the management thereof, support systems for students, and extra curricula activities. The process is not comprehensive and the judgements are inevitably subjective, but the strength of the system lies in the fact that the experienced observers have taught in the field, inspected, and the inspection process is interactive with the course team and iterative over a period before, during and after the formal visits. The process is thus one of professional dialogue and careful reflection. Factors considered include:

(a) the management of an appropriate variety of teacher-led learning activities, lectures, demonstrations, teaching seminars;

(b) the sequence and structure in the material presented, including linkage and relationship; and the regulation of competing demands from different elements in the course so that students have a reasonable chance of managing a workload and of experiencing a real sense of progression and rigour;

(c) an emphasis on underlying principles, processes and concepts in the field under study, and a complementary avoidance of excessive content learning and routine exercise;

(d) planned diversity in the learning activities managed and conducted by the student, reading, writing, carrying out experiments, investigations and briefs, contributing to seminar work, all forms of student exercise, exploration, assimilation and ownership of learning;

(e) skilful and thorough use of student work, through marking and other feedback both to students and to course organisers, including the planning, supervision and systematic follow-up of placements and work experience where this is approporiate; and

(f) care in admission and induction, and in the monitoring of student progress, including the introduction of study skills where needed, especially guidance on independent or self-directed study.
(Gibson in Moodie 1986:130).

The inspectors do not have a set of tightly defined, preordained prescriptions of what a course should be. As they see, in the course of their duties, a wide variety of courses, institutional structures and resourcing levels, a broader perspective is taken as to what is acceptable in quality terms. Their collective experience has highlighted certain general factors of note. Given an acceptable minimum level of resources of staff, facilities and equipment, high quality is not proportional to the level of resources. The cardinal factor for successful education is the commitment, enthusiasm and competence of the staff. This may be seen in the efficient organisation and management of the course, the generation of a sense of purpose, significance and mutual respect between the staff and students, and an orderliness, application and engagement in the day to day conduct of student learning. There is an efficiency and economy in the realisation of the education task required.

On the other hand, common deficiencies are found to be in the student and course induction processes, in the method of lecturing and conducting seminars, and in practical or project work which is not as well managed as it should be. A need is seen for enriched staff development.

Value is seen in some form of collective monitoring within a collegiate system. The value of peer review is that the 'judges' will eventually also be judged, and that to judge is also to learn and develop from the process. An inspection, professionally handled, can be an interactive and mutually beneficial process.

8.10 PROFESSIONAL INPUTS

Another external control on institutional quality is the effect that a profession can have on its training institutions. In South Africa, the statutory teaching council has articulated the desire to be involved in all aspects of educational planning, from the initiation stage to the resultant legislation. The Teachers' Federal Council has the authority to advise on the requirements for the training of persons as teachers and for admission to such training. The TFC is represented on the Committee for Qualification and Training of the Committee of Heads of Education and thus has input into decisions concerning course length, content and structure. In addition it contributes to discussion on practice teaching and internship matters. It sits on commissions, liaises with teacher training institutions and registers teachers, which is an implicit recognition of the training courses. These concerns relate directly to 'fitness to practice' issues.

In Scotland, a General Teaching Council report (Lomax 1976:53) advocated the need for a stronger sense of partnership between the colleges of education and the teaching profession throughout the process of training. Similarly the Taylor Committee (McGuckin 1987:37) advised the creation of 'local committees' which would be particularly concerned with fostering communications between local schools, training institutions and the community at large.

There is a feeling that the public should be represented in teacher education and that contact between schools and colleges will ensure that teacher training courses will be experientially based. The collegiate system envisaged in this work would incorporate the interests of the professional bodies, the teaching institutions, the employer (the State authorities) and the community, by providing for channels of communication and representation.

However the Collegium would also act as a corporate institutional bulwark against the tensions implicit in such partnerships. For example, the colleges are concerned essentially with theoretical knowledge (even on practical matters) and the professional bodies are essentially concerned with competence on the job.

There is a subtle distinction between the standards of an institution and the purpose of an institution. Standards imply institutional hierarchies. It is necessary however to judge institutions in the light of what they are for, as the institutional goals and plans will revolve around purpose. Universities are not *per se* 'better than' colleges; they are different institutions with different purposes and need to be judged as such. Because the purpose of a college differs from that of a university, it does not mean that it is necessarily of a lower standard.

Quality, when judged in terms of fitness of purpose, is elusive. The nature and identity of what is being judged is uncertain and controversial. It is so vague as to provide no

guide to action or policy. It seems so simple: the aim of a college of education is to turn out a good teacher. Yet, the naturalistic fallacy is soon encountered when we try to move from "what is" to "what ought to be". The aim of a college is to train a teacher, therefore we ought to ...? There is no logically correct premise, no universally valid answer.

Relativity is also encountered in value judgements. A "good" teacher is identifiable; what makes a teacher "good" cannot be simply and fully explicated, even allowing for the relativity of the value judgement in defining "good" in terms of purpose. Ultimately such value judgements are best left to the people who know the colleges themselves. It has been contended (SRHE 1983:14) that mature institutions, with experienced senior staff, should only be subjected to the controls that are strictly necessary. It is inherent in the collegiate concept that colleges, and their staff, will develop and mature from the shared corporate experiences inherent in the collegiate concept.

8.11 ADMISSION STANDARDS

Another externally imposed control, that may be viewed as positively affecting standards, is that of the admission requirements. The standards, which are demanded for entry to a professional course of training, may be part of the gatekeeping function of maintaining high standards by setting very high admission requirements. This will result in a severe competition for places in the training courses, with equally demanding qualifications being required for

admission to the profession upon the completion of the training. Such controls are contra-indicated in teaching, because teachers are not in a market of limited services, where competition for work affects earnings.

Rather, teaching is a mass profession, linked to the ideal of universal schooling. The emphasis is not on the standards at entry to the training, although moderate standards are essential, but on the quality of the student teachers upon the completion of their training. Nor should the admission criteria be purely based on academic criteria. Selection of teachers is on a professional basis, one aspect of which is some form of docunology, whereby an inquiry is held into the character and antecedents of the aspirant teachers.

In comparison, the university intake in Britain requires a minimum of A level passes, which means that only 15 % of the population qualifies for consideration. However, as universities consider D and E grade passes on the A level examinations as representing 'poor calibre' candidates, who are usually excluded from consideration, the pool of prospective teachers in Britain, if they are trained in the universities, is very limited indeed.

It is good to have high admission standards, but not if they result in excluding potentially good teachers from training. If admission standards are too high, they have to be lowered or side stepped by the employing authorities in order to run the education system. It appears that the answer, especially in South Africa where the quality of schooling results in

dubious prognostications, when based on standard 10 results, is to concentrate on raising the standards of students in training and on an ongoing basis upon employment *via* in-service development and training. The admission requirements for entry to training, and to the profession on qualifying, can then be professionally relevant and intellectually defensible in the light of the student resources available.

An external factor of control used to guarantee academic standards in Britain (Trow 1987:272) is the common unit of resource, essentially represented by a relatively constant staff/student ratio, rank for rank. Pay scales are equal within the various levels thereby avoiding the concentration of abler or more productive scholars in one institution. Common appointment procedures are also in effect, with an external referee system. Similarly, the costs of studying at the various institutions is held relatively constant and amenities are similar, thereby ensuring that the average ability of the students who attend the various institutions is relatively constant. The result is that the British universities are so similar that Carter (in Trow 1987:272) thinks of them as "separate campuses of the University of the United Kingdom".

In South Africa, colleges cannot be viewed in a similar way because of differentials in resourcing on the basis of the apartheid ideaology. Qualifications differ nominally, as well as according to the financial, staffing and physical resources. One of the aims of the collegiate structure is to

work towards eliminating such differentials so as to move increasingly towards an inter collegiate parity.

8.12 INSTITUTIONAL PERFORMANCE REVIEW

Three distinct approaches to formal evaluation for course improvement have emerged:

(i) the appraisal of documented intentions and claims for courses, such as in CNAA validations;

(ii) appraisal, through the measurement of student learning outcomes, of the extent to which course objectives have been achieved; and

(iii) a feedback procedure based on student and staff appraisals of course experiences. This method is used in course review and development.

None of these methods effectively evaluates institutional performance to the satisfaction of the external organisations which fund them. Calvert (in Oxtoby 1980:146) has developed a systems approach model for defining institutional performance.

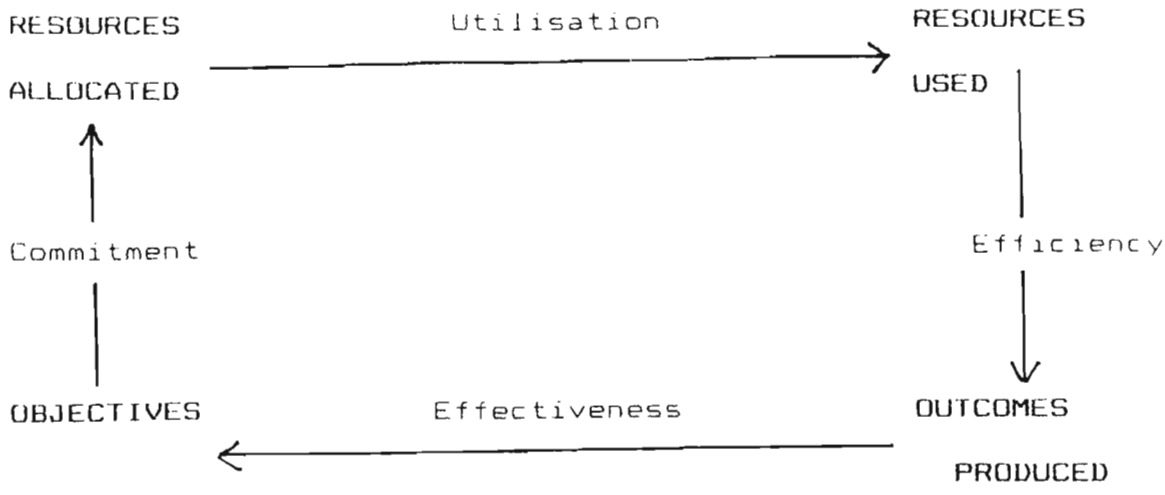

Figure 14 - Facets of institutional performance

This construct permits a distinction between inefficient use of resources and under utilization of resources.

Defining institutional performance is one matter, measuring it is another. This model will not be discussed in detail, but it is noted as another perspective in the debate on standards of tertiary institutions and one that accords with public administrative perspectives as it links resources with academic and professional indices of performance.

8.13 IN-SERVICE TRAINING AND THE STANDARDS OF TEACHERS

Teacher certification is not an event; it is a process that should occur over a professional lifetime. The collegiate concept is designed to be ongoing in that in-service teacher development and further opportunities for gaining relevant qualifications is envisaged. This is possible on an informal teacher demand basis or it can be enforced by requiring

teaching certificates to be renewed on a set basis and according to criteria laid down legislatively.

Recertificaiton schemes are designed to ensure that teachers, as professionals, keep abreast of recent developments in educating children. Teacher development requires an ongoing mastery of new skills, possibly coupled with obtaining higher qualifications.

In South Africa, developing skills and improving qualifications are essential, where so many teachers are academically and professionally unqualified or underqualified. There is a need to upgrade even the better qualified members of the teacher core, whereby a four year Higher Diploma in Education could be upgraded to a degree, for example. However, the collegiate concept is not predicated entirely on academic criteria, and short courses in management skills and the specific needs of the teacher in the classroom also need to be addressed in a continuing professional education programme. Such courses would need to be recognised in some way, from the awarding of a certificate, to being considered for promotion purposes, and possibly for pay increases. Such in-service schemes would encourage tripartite collaboration between colleges, schools and the organised profession. The schools and profession should be able to provide inputs into the planning and execution of such courses at a local level. They will know what compensatory and complementary in-service training is required. Some courses will be a function of the requirements of a teacher's job, whilst others will extend a

teacher's professional and pedagogical capabilities, both falling under the rubric of staff development.

8.14 STANDARDS IN SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION

Standardisation in South African education has tended to be elitist, in that the standards have evolved and been applied to the white segment of the population, initially exclusively, but lately predominantly. In teacher education, National Criteria have been established since 1972, whereas in black teacher education a significant proportion of the teachers do not even hold a senior certificate qualification. Consequently, as South African education evolves in tandem with developments on the political front, the challenge will be to maintain a high standard of education in the face of the emergence of mass education. America faced a similar problem, when higher education, exclusively for the select, ceased, and the ideal of two years of higher or further education for every citizen was expounded.

Standards in teacher education were, in the early days in South Africa, a matter of Education Department fiat. Departmental officials controlled the teacher training examinations and the employment of teachers in white education, and set the standards required for both the qualification and appointment as a teacher.

In terms of the National Education Policy Act, 1967 (Act 39 of 1967), the Committee of Heads of Education (CHE) was created. It was empowered to make recommendations to the

Minister in connection with schools and teacher education, and on the manner in which education policy should be realised on a coordinated basis. A national system of accreditation and certification was evolved by the CHE and a pattern of training was set out in the *Criteria for the Evaluation of South African Qualifications for Employment in* Education (referred to hereafter as the *Criteria*). This represents a basis for uniformity in the category classification of teachers for salary and grading purposes. The *Criteria* reflect the minimum requirements for teacher training and for employment in education, but actual employment as a teacher remains the prerogative of the Head of the Education Department concerned.

In setting the pattern for teacher preparation, the CHE detailed the course structures and basic requirements to be fulfilled. The *Criteria* allow for consecutive and concurrent forms of training and incorporate academic and professional requirements, including practice teaching. The *Criteria* specify the minimum requirements for teacher training, which may be exceeded if deemed necessary by an institution. The *Criteria* also specify the format of the diplomas. Le Roux (1983:18) is critical of this form of teacher education standardisation which he describes as "...merely mechanically fulfilling the pre-requisites of the *Criteria*..."

In order to explicate this approach to standardisation, aspects of the *Criteria* will be considered in some detail.

8.15 THE *CRITERIA* FOR THE EVALUATION OF SOUTH AFRICAN QUALIFICATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT IN EDUCATION

According to the *Criteria*, an approved degree is defined as one which:

(i) has been awarded by an institution which has been approved by the CHE for the training of teachers;

(ii) satisfied the requirements of the university concerned; and

(iii) complies with the *Criteria*.

An approved diploma is defined as one which has been approved by the CHE, and for post 1972 diplomas (i.e. post *Criteria*), which have been individually evaluated according to the *Criteria*.

"Approved" or "recognised" refers to a course or an institution for training teachers which has been accepted by the CHE. Qualifications issued by an accredited institution are recognised in their own right. No mention is made as to how the CHE accredits an institution and no departmental directives are released publically to elucidate this process. Perhaps this is because teacher training institutions are established and controlled by the government and accreditation is an 'in house' affair. Recently Promat, a privately funded and run organisation, established a college of education in the Pretoria region, with more such colleges being planned in the future.

Accreditation is likely to become more of an issue if private colleges offer teacher training that may be at variance with the *Criteria* specifications and requirements, especially if these teachers will be employed in State schools.

Legislation has already been enacted to provide Accreditation Councils. These councils will also evaluate the standards of colleges from different (racially exclusive) Education Departments to give expression to the sameness of standards. Such "standardisation" is likely to be received sceptically in the light of past "different but equal" claims in education.

The minimum admission requirement for teacher education is 'm' which signifies a senior certificate. A university exemption is naturally required to proceed with university degree courses. The concept of 'm', or 'standard 10', which is awarded after 12 years of schooling, is also used to evaluate overseas qualifications for admission to South African teacher training courses.

In *Criteria* parlance, a teacher's certificate signifies academic and professional status, whereas a diploma signifies proof of competence as a teacher, as well as academic and professional status. A teacher's diploma is graded on the basis of a specified number of courses which equate with university courses. The *Criteria* (1989:9) explanation of comparability of standards is described as:

> "A university degree course comprises a specific qualitative content and volume of work to be covered in a year, which is characterised by a certain degree of difficulty, and by demands made on intellectual ability. It therefore represents a standard of achievement which can be controlled by moderation".

A subject (academic discipline) in a diploma course may be considered similar or equivalent to, or comparable with, that of a university course, if it is controlled by moderation to represent a standard of achievement attained in respect of qualitative content, volume and degree of difficulty akin to a university standard course. The equivalent or comparable course may be taken over a longer period than one year however.

The *Criteria* (1989:11) specify the general principles which apply to the structure and content of courses of teacher training. The evaluation of qualifications is predicated on these general principles:

- minimum admission qualifications are required;

- the institution awarding the qualification must have a recognised or accredited status;

- the minimum duration of a course is specified;

- the contents of a course in terms of the structure, depth and duration of each of its sub-sections required for a pass is specified;

- there must be proof of the successful completion of the course and proof that the qualification would be

recognised in its country of origin as an acceptable teaching qualification; and

- there must be proof that the qualification incorporates a professional orientation *vis-a-vis* the teaching profession.

In essence, for employment purposes, a teacher must possess an approved diploma, with a bilingual language endorsement, that follows on an 'm' school leaving certificate, in order for his qualifications to be recognised for appointment as a teacher. However exceptions are permitted in certain instances and these are labelled schedule 9 posts. If a teacher has a qualification that does not meet the *Criteria* requirements, or where the basic training required is not offered at the colleges or universities, or where skills and knowledge have been acquired experientially, exceptions may be made and qualifications may be recognised, albeit at a lower category (salary) level. Appointment in such instances may be on a temporary basis, as an emergency measure in exceptional circumstances. Schedule 9 posts are for professionally unqualified teachers whose qualifications are appropriate for the job. These include technical courses, based on trade tests and apprenticeships, as well as areas such as music, dancing and librarianship.

The evaluation of schedule 9 posts is according to a specific rationale. Full time study implies 40 weeks of 25 hours duration giving a standard of 1000 contact hours. From this standard, other formulations have been set as follows:

- part time courses equate to 40 weeks at 8 hours *per* week (320 hours)

- block release courses equate to 13 1/3 weeks at 30 hours *per* week (400 hours)

- sandwich courses consist of formal tuition for 20 weeks at 32 hours *per* week (640 hours)

Practical in-service training is transposed into a tuition equivalent rating, using an arbitrary factor of 10 hours practical in-service training being comparable to 4 hours of tuition. On this basis, each type of combination of study and practical experience is equated to approximately 1000 hours, and so a standard for comparison is derived.

The *Criteria* do not permit the recognition of two qualifications if there is overlapping at specified levels. This is not based on content, for example History U1 and a History curriculum course do not overlap, whereas History U1 at a university and a comparable History U1 within a college diploma course do overlap, as they are deemed to be of an equivalent level.

In assessing a degree course for teaching purposes according to the *Criteria*, a number of specified teaching subject credits in certain combinations is required. Teaching credits are listed in a schedule. Approximately half of the degree course credits must be in teaching subjects.

A recent innovation has been the move towards the establishment of Certification Councils.

8.16 CERTIFICATION COUNCILS

In South African terms, certification is perceived as a procedure by which an institution, or a group of institutions, or a certifying body thus empowered, issues a certificate stating that a person has complied with all the requirements applying to a particular qualification.

The South African government felt that central statutory certification councils should be established. They would be responsible for setting norms and standards for syllabi and examinations, and for the certification of the resultant qualifications. Such a validation council for teacher training would be acceptable to the professional teaching council, although some colleges offer qualifications in conjunction with universities under statutory requirements and the effect of a certification board in such instances would need to be addressed.

The South African Certification Council Act, 1986 (Act 85 of 1986) was established to provide control at the different points of withdrawal in schools, technical colleges and non-formal education, so as to ensure that the various qualifications represented the same standard of education and examination by providing for the conducting of common examinations. This Council is appointed by the Minister of National Education, in consultation with the other Ministers of Education. It consists of a chairman, one member from each of the four departments of education responsible for education (i.e. white education) and nine persons appointed

from a list of names proposed by any recognised body, society or organisation and duly gazetted. An executive officer is also appointed. The Council may establish committees and delegate powers and it may liaise with the CUP and CTP on requirements for admission to universities and technikons.

A similar Certification Council for Technikons was established *via* Act 88 of 1986. In effect this represents a national examination system, decentralised, but centrally controlled. The Minister determines the policy within which these Councils function. These Councils are considered by some to be inherently flawed, in that they are established and function, within an "own affairs" apartheid dispensation.

Teacher training does not fall under the Certification Councils. The Teachers' Federal Council, a statutory professional teachers' body, is against the concept of uniform syllabi. It is prepared to consider the concept of a validation/accreditation Board or Council which sets guidelines, but is against national requirements. Any such board should not affect the certifying competence or autonomy of colleges. The concept of institutions issuing qualifications that guarantee standards of training is acceptable to the TFC. The feeling is that any accreditation system should not be burdensome, possibly relying on the accreditation of lecturers and/or institutions. The need is seen however for some form of coordination and rationalisation of qualifications.

One approach would be the validation of qualifications for admission to the teaching profession by a single central validating authority for teacher education, consisting of representatives of the training institutions and the organised teaching profession. A clear distinction is made between validating a qualification and certification, as the latter is the prerogative of the institution itself. Accreditation could occur at a national or a departmental level.

8.17 STAFFING AND QUALITY TEACHER EDUCATION

One of the ways of raising the standard of tertiary education and maintaining a high quality of education is to control staffing appointments and develop the lecturers' qualifications and expertise. The quality of staff employed is a major ingredient in the quality of any institution. De Lange (1981:180) held that:

> "No single factor determines to such an extent the quality of education in a country as the quality of the corps of teachers, lecturers and instructors".

Staff selection may be seen as the characteristic function, almost the critical criterion, of institutional autonomy. There is a need for a rigorous selection of staff for institutions to become self governing, because in higher education there is reliance on self regulation by the individual member of staff. However self interests may predominate and staff may be overly indulgent towards each other, so there is a strong case to be made for collective or external monitoring of the ongoing quality of the staff

members at colleges of education. Selection procedures and ongoing monitoring are the two methods used for external monitoring, and each will be discussed in turn.

8.18 STAFF SELECTION

Staff selection in colleges of education is typically *via* some form of peer review, usually with an external assessor component as well. The management of a college, together with university representatives, Education Department representatives and professional body representatives, should ideally select the teacher educators. This does happen in some colleges. In other instances, the appointments are made by internal departmental arrangements, which are open to bias and the application of selective criteria. In such instances, a halo effect may be found, where those selected as lecturers fit into a departmental mindset. This may be based on spurious factors, such as colour, language, religion, social class, belonging to a certain tribe or nation and the institutional affiliation represented by where one trained. Claims of nepotism have been too common to dismiss in the past. Given the tensions in the South African educational situation, the more checks and balances that can be built into the process of selection of teacher educators, the greater the assurance of selecting the best person for the task. Another common form of peer review is using a system of referees, who are respected persons of the candidate's choice, who can attest from their personal knowledge of the candidate as to his strengths and weaknesses. Naturally in the process, the quality of the

referees needs to be taken into account as part of the assessment.

The selection process can never be entirely objective. The whole issue as to which factors should be taken into account, and with what weighting, is contentious. Candidates for a post usually provide a curriculum vitae, in which they set out their academic and professional record, their accomplishments, training and any publications to their name. An applicant's prestige, reputation and service in extra mural endeavours may also be considered. Selection indicators, or predictors, need to go beyond a pure assessment of scholarly excellence in an autonomous institution. Operational needs must also have a high priority, such as the ability to offer a programme, to cover a curriculum, to accommodate academic interests, to administer, and assessments of academic citizenship and a minimal compatability in an academic/professional environment. (Eustace 1988:75)

8.19 STAFF CREDENTIALLING

Another commonly used way of ensuring quality staff performance and development is by staff credentialling, certification or licensure. These terms are used interchangeably. Certification is a process of legal sanction, authorising the holder of a credential to perform specific services in public schools (Kinney in Dunkin 1987:658). The accepted purpose of credentialling is to

establish and maintain standards for the preparation and employment of persons who teach.

Staff credentialling is a form of accreditation of staff. It may be general, subject specific or phase specific. It may be related to holding specific qualifications from a recognised educational institution, such as a BEd degree for example. It may consist of mutual recognition of certain staff, determined according to some criteria, by related institutions such as a college and a university. The required standard of qualification and/or experience, and the balance between the two, is difficult to specify and may be contentious. For example, a teacher educator with outstanding academic credentials may not be capable of completing the professional role and functions required.

Credentialling of staff may be carried out internally by the institution, or by some external examining board, or by a professional body in some manner. A programme may be approved which the person must complete before credentialling is considered. If such approved programmes are offered by different organisations, standards may vary as the systems vary. Dhlomo (1979:vii) appealed for a clearly defined programme of teriary training for teacher educators, possibly including a BEd degree endorsed for teacher training. In addition, provision should perhaps be made for ongoing classroom contact, including a periodic return to teaching, and an expectation that research will continue to be undertaken. Mood (1975:55) stressed that personal teacher educator credentialling should not be an

event, but a process, in that there is a need for continually updating and the collecting of comprehensive information about a person's knowledge and experience.

Another approach is to forego standardised credentialling and to assess the outcomes of a programme on the implicit understanding that staff performance will affect course outcomes. The CNAA, for example, takes no role in relation to determining criteria for staffing appointments, as this is regarded as a matter for the institutions themselves.

One cannot legislate for confidence and trust, but steps can be taken to ensure the quality of the staff and to promote staff development. Such considerations are central to the collegiate concept.

8.20 SUMMARY

This chapter has dealt with the concern for quality and standards in teacher education. The Collegium system is specifically structured for the pooling of resources and the development of colleges as a corporate sector. It also entails a system of internal and external controls in administration, financing, academic and professional matters, which all affect quality teacher education.

Certification, accreditation and validation have been considered as mechanisms for maintaining quality and standards in teacher education. Two models of corporate quality control have been considered as templates *viz.* NCATE and CNAA. The current procedures for establishing standards

in teacher education in South Africa, the *Criteria*, have been critically evaluated.

The Collegium model is designed for the development of teachers who are already trained, *via* in-service training. The articulation of pre-service and in-service training is central to the collegiate concept.

CHAPTER NINE

9 THE COLLEGIUM AS A MODEL FOR THE PROVISION AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA: THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL ADMINISTRATIVE PERSPECTIVES

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The perspectives outlined in this work will be formulated into the Collegium model, which is presented below. The model will then be appraised in the light of the perspectives raised in the previous chapters.

9.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE ISSUES HIGHLIGHTED IN THE PREVIOUS CHAPTERS

In the previous chapters we have considered a number of aspects and issues pertaining to a future dispensation for the provision of teacher education in South Africa. Consideration was given primarily to the following:

- theoretical and practical Public Administration perspectives;

- normative values applicable to the Public Administration process;

- historical antecedents of teacher education provision in South Africa from 1910 to the present;

- the political, societal, administrative, educational and professional aspects relating to the provision of

teacher education and the issues emerging therefrom;

- the administrative structures pertaining to the provision of teacher education;

- current positions *vis-a-vis* a new educational dispensation in South Africa;

- a comparative perspective on issues pertinent to this research was considered for a number of countries around the world;

- political parameters concerning teacher education were considered, including issues such as centralisation/ decentralisation, institutional efficiency and effectiveness, control and accountability, and coordination in a corporate college sector;

- college management structures, including issues such as institutional autonomy, academic freedom, staffing, student admissions and institutional affiliation;

- the role of (teacher) education in the economy, including its role in development and change;

- issues relating to the financing of colleges of education and the funding of teachers in training;

- the status and place of professional teacher education and colleges of education within higher education; and,

- mechanisms for maintaining and improving academic and professional standards in teacher education.

9.3 THE COLLEGIUM MODEL

The Collegium model is a national, corporate, unitary system of college administration, which is articulated with all the other phases and levels of educational provision. Therefore higher education would, for the first time in South Africa, be treated as an integrated system. This model accommodates the planning and coordination of college affairs on a national basis. As a consultative and executive body, the Collegium would formulate policies and give effect to its own decisions, thereby assuring a strong professional say in the management of the collegiate sector. At the same time, the government would be fully consulted and involved, resulting in planning, resource allocation and accountability being controlled within the corporate processes under the supervision of the Minister.

The Collegium is a system whereby colleges are enabled to function exclusively, yet corporately, in an organic federation of colleges. The Collegium would advise the government on college sector matters and act as a broker in carrying out government policy requirements. As such, the Collegium would work closely with the government, but would retain a fair measure of independence from government interference in its affairs.

The Collegium would represent a source of collective wisdom and experience which could be exploited for the benefit of the corporate college sector. As such, it would provide guidance and control in the provision of teacher education

and would promote inter-institutional cooperation and collaboration.

As a model, the Collegium accommodates a professional/ administrative interface. It links political, professional and other stakeholders in a working arrangement for the provision of teacher education. The colleges would also have an integral role in influencing the policy, direction and developments within the collegiate sector. This would be accomplished by college participation in mutual deliberation and consultation *via* their representation on the various collegiate structures at the national and regional levels.

In the management of academic and professional matters, committees of experts would constitute an advisory service, whereby the colleges could improve and develop, because of their access to this corporate resource. Such committees could act as sounding boards and as channels for distributing relevant information. Thus the colleges in the Collegium system would be entering an inclusive, corporate, cooperative and mutually sustaining arrangement. Such cooperation would be on the basis of mutual agreement rather than compulsion.

The advantages of such an articulated system of governance of the college sector would be that national and regional decisions would cohere and follow the national directives which would have been derived corporately. Inter-regional liaison would ensure cooperation and collaboration between colleges, yet the circumstances and needs of the individual

colleges would be recognised. In this way, the Leverhulme Committee ideal would be realised, that management should occur *via* a widely representative body to ensure a wide span of skills and experience, which could be drawn from local, regional and national resources.

9.3.1 THE COLLEGIUM IDEOLOGY

The ideal position in teacher education would be to have no ideological bias whatsoever. This would be very difficult to achieve in practice. It would therefore be wise to set out a broad ideology for the collegiate sector. The ideology espoused in this work has been the professional ideology which underlies the administrative, professional and academic corporate ethos.

Teacher education in South Africa has been through a very trying time because of the apartheid ideology. For this reason any collegiate sector ideology which is likely to be articulated would be drawn up with the problems and pains of the previous system in mind.

Democracy is likely to be a primary value of the collegiate sector and it would probably find general assent as an ideological principle. The Collegium is designed to ensure democratic participation. Related to this perspective would be a concern for reflecting the cultural norms of society, whilst maintaining acceptable standards of scholarship.

Because of past experiences, no schisms or stigmatisation would be likely to be tolerated on racial grounds. Financial

provision would have to be fair, just and equitable. Past injustices and backlogs would have to be specifically addressed. Access and educational opportunities would have to be equal. The Collegium is predicated on such ideological principles.

9.4 EDUCATION DEPARTMENT STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS AT THE NATIONAL (MACRO) LEVEL

An organogram of the envisaged National Department of Education is presented as a backdrop to the ensuing discussion of the Collegium.

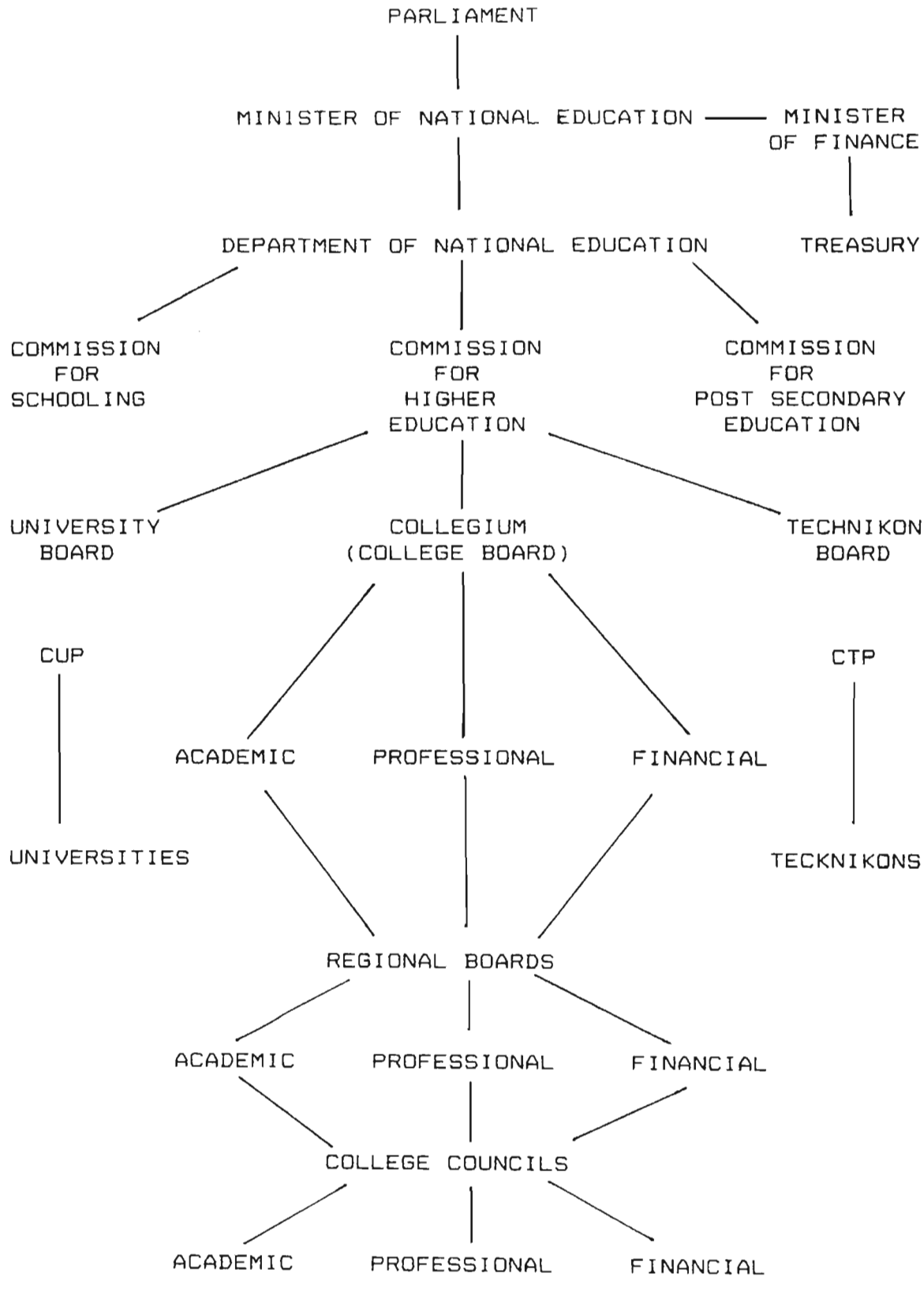

Figure 15 - Schematic representation of the collegiate structures

It is envisaged that there would be a single Ministry of National Education that would encompass all aspects of education with one Minister of Education. The Ministry would comprise three Commissions *viz.*:

- a Commission for Schooling;

- a Commission for Higher Education (Universities, Technikons and Colleges of Education) ;

- a Commission for Post Secondary Education (non-higher education such as community colleges, career education and training, adult education, non-formal education, literacy and other educational backlogs).

The Commission for Higher Education would consist of three discrete Boards, with representation on the Commission. They would be:

- the University Board;

- the Technikon Board;

- the College Board, the Collegium.

Each Board would be responsible for its sector of tertiary education. It would liaise with the government and the institutions in its sector as a system of administration.

9.4.1 THE ROLE OF THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION IN THE COLLEGE SECTOR

The Minister is in overall control of the college sector. Although the Collegium model envisages that the Minister

would devolve considerable powers and responsibilities to the Collegium, he would be responsible ultimately for the main decisions affecting the collegiate sector. He would be consulted and guided by the Collegium, but would decide on:

- the overall financial resources and level of funding which would be made available to the collegiate sector, and the allocation of these resources in very general terms, including the mechanisms for such funding;

- capital expenditure;

- the service conditions applicable to personnel in the sector;

- determining the broad general policy concerning provision and priorities, including the overall planning and policy-making in the sector;

- control, accountability, and evaluation in teacher education;

- backlogs in teacher education provision, particularly the physical amenities;

- establishing principles, guidelines and the minimum standards in teacher education; and

- seeing that the Collegium acts in a way that is fair and just to all concerned, including students, teachers, teacher educators, education authorities, communities and any other relevant stakeholders affected by the Collegium actions or decisions. The right to appeal, and a channel

directly to the Minister, must exist for when a member college wishes to appeal to him directly.

At the same time the Minister would not be permitted to act unilaterally and with disregard for the collegiate sector. The Collegium should have direct access to the Minister to initiate negotiations, present proposals, to comment on financial matters, to discuss issues and to have an input concerning decisions. It is envisaged that the Minister and the Collegium would work closely together. The Minister would rely heavily on the Collegium for input, perspectives, guidance and advice. Should the Minister act contrarily to the advice or requirements of the Collegium, he would be required to inform them for his reasons for doing so, as occurs in Scotland between the Minister and the General Teaching Council for Scotland.

9.5 THE COLLEGIUM STRUCTURES

The Collegium would function in broad terms as set out below. Detailed prescriptions have been avoided as these would be the subject of negotiation in the collegiate sector. The principles are highlighted to elucidate the model.

9.5.1 THE CENTRAL LEVEL: STRUCTURES AND MECHANISMS

The role of the Collegium is to act as an intermediary between the Minister of Education, representing the government, and the regional structures and individual colleges of education in the collegiate system.

The Collegium would work closely with the Minister, in consultation with the collges *via* the regional bodies, on the following matters:

- advising on general policy regarding the academic and professional norms and standards of teacher education;

- making recommendations on all matters of planning, review and research for the collegiate sector;

- negotiating on the rights of colleges to offer courses;

- the determination of the general admission requirements for teacher training, such as holding a senior certificate;

- consulting on the minimum content of teacher training courses for certification purposes, including the minimum duration of training required;

- consulting on the minimum qualifications for appointment as a teacher educator, including expertise, qualifications and experience, as well as the conditions of employment of the college staff;

- evaluating, reporting and making recommendations on the setting of norms and standards for the financing of recurrent and capital costs, as well as the funding of backlog provision, including the annual national estimates of expenditure;

- negotiating on the establishment, development and extension of the colleges;

- establishing the number of teachers to be trained and allocating numbers to the colleges in the form of minimum loan quotas;

- consulting on the provision of in-service teacher education to ameliorate the unqualified and underqualified teacher educator and teacher position;

- drawing up national policies and draft legislation, in consultation;

- advising the Minister on strategies to achieve equality of opportunity in the teacher educator sector and the realisation of equivalent standards in training throughout the college system; and

- advising on physical planning guidelines and national norms for college facilities.

9.5.2 COMPOSITION OF THE COLLEGIUM

The Collegium would be composed of a permanent Management Committee, as well as other representatives. There would be a secretariate to effect the administration of the affairs of the Collegium. The Management Committee would consist predominantly of persons who have been teacher educators, especially experts in the various fields of concern. Rectors would be likely candidates for promotion appointments to the Collegium Management positions.

In addition to teacher educators, the Collegium would consist of government representatives from the Department of

National Education and the Treasury, representatives from the Committee of University Principals and the Committee of Technikon Principals, the Teachers' Federal Council body, members of each of the regional collegiate bodies and community/private sector members. The chairman of each of the permanent standing committees would also serve on the Collegium, namely the professional committee, the academic committee, the finance committee and the Committee of College of Education Rectors. Teacher educators would also be represented.

The Collegium, in consultation with the regional and local structures, would decide on the membership of the committees.

Some members of the Management Committee would be appointed on a full time basis; others would be appointed/elected on a part time basis for a number of years. The Minister and the collegiate sector would have to agree to nominees for appointment and should be able to veto an appointment in exceptional cases, and with good cause, as presented to the Minister. Once appointed, these members should have security of tenure; only the State President should be empowered to dismiss a member of the Management Committee on specified grounds. Reasons for such a dismissal would have to tabled in Parliament within a specified period of time.

9.5.3 COMMITTEES OF THE COLLEGIUM

The Collegiate would function as a central executive body, with a number of sub-committees, which would be integrated

via the Collegium, yet which would act independently. Each committee would have its own responsibilty and expertise; yet committees may well have some members in common which would ensure a cross-pollination of ideas and perspectives, within an integrated service. The main committees would be:

- the *finance committee*, dealing with budgeting, allocation of funds and auditing of expenditure, and general administrative matters;

- the *professional committee* would deal with the registration of teacher educators. It would address matters such as staff appraisal and development in order to raise the quality and standard of the teaching staff, the certification and licensure of teacher educators, including requirements for appointment as a teacher educator, the professional standards required in teacher education and in-service provision for teachers;

- an *academic standards committee*, which would have the overall responsibility for matters of academic quality. It would handle institutional accreditation, course validation and review, college visitation, the external examiner system and the recognition of academic awards. It would also deal with matters arising from the regional subject committees and distribute information of academic concern and interest. It would play a strong advisory role and provide a forum for curriculum development. It would gather and disseminate subject information;

- a committee consisting of all the rectors would meet when required, to deal with their concerns and interests. Such a body, the *Committee of College of Education Rectors* (CCER) was formed in 1992; and

- an *appeals committee* would be constituted by the Collegium, but entirely independent of it, to address any grievances and appeals by individuals or institutions. It would consist of persons of integrity and public standing, such as judges and university principals. This committee would investigate any complaints and appeals and resolve them.

A body similar to the Teachers' Federal Council is envisaged for the professional registration of teachers. The Collegium and such a body would work very closely together, with representation on each other's committees where appropriate. This body would address matters such as the number of teachers required in the country and the standards of entry to teacher training, in consultation with the Collegium, as a joint responsibility.

9.5.4 FUNCTIONS OF THE COLLEGIUM

The Collegium would have the overall responsibility in a number of areas associated with teacher education. The following functions would be the responsibility of the Collegium, although they may be accomplished by the colleges in consultation with the Collegium. The Collegium would be responsible for:

- the execution of the policy of the government for the collegiate sector; assisting in the drawing up of the national collegiate policy; acting as a broker between the government and the colleges, by reconciling government interests with college sector interests;

- the assessment and examining of college qualifications, including the maintenance and improvement of academic and professional standards; utilising their charter for establishing degree level training centrally, and in those colleges which develop to a point where they are capable and worthy of offering such courses;

- the control and issuing of certificates;

- deriving and maintaining the minimum standards *vis-a-vis* the quality of the courses and the calibre of the teacher educators, including the accreditation of colleges, the validation of courses and the certification and licensure of teacher educators *via* a professional registration of teacher educators; maintaining comparable standards between colleges and regions; developing teacher educator competence;

- collegiate control, accountability, system monitoring and the submission of annual reports, including auditing functions;

- coordinating teacher education provision, including the financial, physical and human resources, and the management of system conflicts; laying down regulations, guidelines and

principles in consultation with the colleges, and inspecting to ensure that these are correctly implemented; specifying the powers, responsibilities and obligations of the regional and college bodies;

- allocating resources and monitoring the implementation of Collegium policies and programmes; striving for the highest level of internal efficiency and effectiveness; advising and guiding colleges in such matters; assuring the management expertise of college and regional staff;

- conducting relevant ongoing research for planning and policy-making purposes;

- liaison with other professional bodies;

- establishing a national in-service training facility in order to address the problem of unqualified and underqualified teachers; addressing system backlogs;

- deriving the number of student teachers required, allocating quotas to the colleges in an equitable fashion and controlling student loan/bursary parameters;

- ensuring that there are wide-ranging and adequate consultative mechanisms, both within the collegiate system and with outside stakeholders; the hallmarks of the collegiate system are coordination, cooperation, negotiation and consultation; linked to this responsibility is the need to ensure an adequate devolution of power to the regional and college structures; and

- establishing a system of peer review and visitation, and an external examiner system, to ensure a partnership in validation based on corporately derived criteria.

9.5.5 THE REGIONAL LEVEL: STRUCTURES AND MECHANISMS

Each regional structure has the primary role of acting as an intermediary between the Collegium and its constituent bodies, and the individual colleges in the region.

The regional body would collect information and perspectives from its colleges and relay them to the Collegium structures. This information would be on matters affecting policy-making and feedback on proposed draft legislation, financial requirements for budgeting purposes, auditing and annual accountability reports, as well as capital needs and priorities in this regard.

The regional level would also be responsible for the dissemination of information and policy requirements from the Collegium to the colleges. It would be the responsibility of each region to see that the colleges take cognisance of the national macropolicy for the collegiate sector and implement that policy.

It would be the region that must ensure that colleges work in harmony and strive for excellence and economy. The regional bodies would foster initiative and responsibility at the local level. The region would function at an administrative coordinating level. It would not be a policy-making body *per se*.

The region would function *via* a small secretariat for financial, administrative and liaison purposes. It would be funded by the Collegium. Its main structures would consist of a number of representative consultative committees, which would effectively mediate between the central and local levels. These committees would be authoritative organs of consultation. For example, there would be a committee for financial/budgetary concerns. Representatives of each college would serve on such a committee; one representative from that regional committee would serve on the equivalent committee of the Collegium. Regional committee members would report back to their college councils. The other committees would function in a like manner. The region could glean the perspectives of serving teachers and teacher educators and pass them on to the national level on various issues, such as to subject boards for example.

Thus the Collegium could instigate the discussion of an issue and pass the matter down the line, or a college could raise a matter and it could be passed to other regions *via* the Collegium. In this way, central concerns and local issues would suffuse the collegiate system for purposes of deliberation, consultation, negotiation and decision-making. The regional structures would be of pivotal importance in the collegiate system of joint advisory and coordination committees. The regional bodies would be powerful as they would appoint their own committees and have the power of negotiation.

Policy for the college sector would be derived on a corporate basis in the same manner. The regional structures would therefore be directly involved in the formulation and implementation of collegiate goals in a system of delegated power and consultation.

The regions would have a mandate to look after the autonomy of the colleges. This would include resisting undue pressure from one of its constituent colleges on another college or the collegiate sector, as well as closing ranks on unwarranted pressure from outside.

Regional representation would be decided by the region. The nature of the representation would differ from committee to committee, but would usually include representatives within the region, of the colleges, Education Departments, teacher organisations, community representatives and Collegium nominations where appropriate.

9.5.6 THE LOCAL LEVEL: STRUCTURES AND MECHANISMS

The Leverhulme Committee ideal for colleges would apply in the collegiate model, namely that colleges should be subjected only to controls that are strictly necessary for the maintenance of academic quality and the efficient use of national resources. The collegiate model also has aspects of the James Committee proposals, and thus could achieve the James' declaration that the system proposed would usher in a new degree of independence and self-determination, with a proper degree of responsibility for their own professional affairs.

Each college would be given the maximum freedom to manage its own affairs, in a system of delegated power and responsibility. If a college grossly overstepped its powers, or failed to fulfil its responsibilities, the Collegium could dissolve the college council and run the college until a suitable college council could be reconstituted. Within the national parameters and corporately derived Collegium guidelines, colleges would be free to establish their own aims and goals, their criteria of excellence, their own meanings and standards. Similarly, as each college understands its own needs best, college financial matters would be decided by the college council, within the parametres set by the Collegium. Naturally colleges would be fully accountable for their decisions, and for the economic use of public monies.

Colleges would determine their own courses of instruction and course content, in time even to degree level. In doing so they would need to interpret the needs and wishes of their local community. This would include the views of serving teachers. This is in line with the Lindop Committee aim to foster the growth of the college (teaching institution) as a self-critical academic community.

Course approval would naturally involve the government, which would be concerned that courses are appropriate and not offered willy-nilly, the Collegium, which recognises courses *via* the accreditation process, and the regional and national structures of consultation within the college sector.

The college council would be responsible for the following facets of college administration and academic/professional matters:

- college administration, including budgeting, the allocation of volitional finances and expenditure;
- the management and general efficiency of the college;
- the physical amenities of the college;
- the selection and admission of students, subject to quota;
- curriculating, standards, and setting college principles and guidelines; and
- the professional, administrative and support staff.

Colleges would liaise with other colleges in such matters through the corporate structures of the Collegium and would benefit from the corporate wisdom of the collegiate sector. Such liaison would indirectly stimulate the development of the individual colleges and act as an informal control mechanism.

9.6 A CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF THE COLLEGIATE MODEL

The collegiate model has been presented above. It will be critically appraised below in the light of insights and perspectives outlined in the preceding chapters.

9.7 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION THEORY AND PRACTICE

Public Administration theory and practice were presented as

a frame of reference and a standard against which the collegiate model could be assessed. In any public endeavour, it is necessary to be aware of the value context which surrounds the public administrator's task.

The following public administration issues and values were highlighted as being of primary concern.

9.7.1 POLITICAL SUPREMACY

The Collegium exists under the legislative body, Parliament, which sets the general policy, in consultation, and which determines the general goals and programmes in teacher education provision. It is Parliament which empowers the Collegium, as an executive body, to carry out its responsibilities. In the collegiate system, the State and the Collegium are in a symbiotic relationship, in that the State participation avoids the teacher educators taking decisions based solely on the criteria and values of the profession. Similarly, the active and substantial involvement by the college sector in controlling itself acts as a break on undesirable political interference. This interface between the colleges and the State ensures a healthy homeostasis in the management of the college sector.

9.7.2 DEMOCRATIC TENETS

The collegiate system is democratic in that it assures participation by the stakeholders in the policy-making processes and in the administration of the collegiate sector. The teaching profession, Education Department

personnel, public administrators, the Minister, other tertiary institutions, community leaders and the public at large all have an input into the collegiate system. The collegiate system therefore represents the interests of all.

The collegiate system is democratic in another sense. All the colleges have an opportunity to participate in, and benefit from, the collegiate process. The collegiate model is based on the principles of participatory democracy. As such, the system is more effective, as decision-making occurs under conditions of direct participation by those affected by the outcomes. The Collegium concept ensures a deliberate and systematic mobilisation of the constituent groups and provides a forum for the expression of alternative views. The channels of appeal ensure fair play for all. Because all colleges would be involved in the public policy-making process, the resultant policies would be more relevant and the colleges are likely to be more responsive to them. It is also easier to achieve accord and resolve conflicting interests, and it forces the Collegium to deal with matters of equity.

In terms of access to quality teacher education, the collegiate approach is structured to ensure an equitable system. Admissions must be fair and based on merit, and not on spurious factors such as race. It would be the responsibility of the Collegium to ensure an admissions policy/system that gives the individual student a choice of college and the individual college a say in the admission of its own students.

9.7.3 RULE OF LAW

The rule of law is based on the principles that all citizens are equal and should be treated equally, that there should be no ulterior motives in the administration of teacher education and all decisions should be fair and balanced.

The collegiate system is designed so that each institution, will receive its due. The interests of one group should not be unfairly prejudiced or unjustly favoured. Probity is assured as the system does not easily lend itself to inadmissable gains through the use of authority, preferential treatment or collusion for unjust benefit. Checks and balances are built into the system as it is based on a corporate and open administrative plan with facilities for control, accountability and appeal. The close working relationship with the government is another balancing factor. *Bona fides* administration is enhanced if actions and decisions are justifiable and rational, and open to inspection and comment.

The Collegium would ensure social equity as an equitable distribution of services is a primary aim of the system. The Collegium has a specific mandate to deploy its resources on behalf of the less advantaged and to realise Frederickson's dictum that "...the more advantaged have a moral duty to serve all others, including the disadvantaged" (1980:14). The interdependence of the colleges is predicated on such a principle. The opportunities for mutual deliberation and consultation would optimise the chances of finding a

solution that is favourable to all, as well as resulting in a sharing of knowledge, experiences and resources. The Collegium would have to be sensitive to widely differing and varied approaches which will have to be accommodated and incorporated in its processes if it is to succeed. This would involve a careful study of proposals, a justification of decisions and a more responsive and flexible administration. The Collegium officials will need to be sensitive and responsive to the feelings, values, problems, needs and expectations of its constituent colleges.

9.7.4 CHRISTIAN VALUES

The Collegium system is the antithesis of apartheid education. It promotes Christian values, such as the value of individual persons, by ensuring that they will receive equal and fair treatment and respect for their human dignity. Duty to one's neighbour is encapsulated in the corporate processes. Tolerance of differences is central to the collegiate philosophy. The overall aim is the good of all those involved in the collegiate system.

9.7.5 EFFICIENCY AND EFFECTIVENESS

In an articulated system, such as the Collegium, it would be possible to provide a reasonable quality of teacher education with the least expenditure of manpower, material and financial resources. Certainly, the system would be more efficiently run than the present seventeen education 'own affairs' departments. As a sector, the colleges would coordinate their resources and expertise, rationalise their

services, and determine corporate priorities. This would ensure a minimum of duplication of effort and wasted resources. Resources would be allocated optimally in order to satisfy all the needs to the greatest extent possible.

Effective teacher education will be assured because of the corporate academic and professional goalsetting and the mechanisms for ensuring standards and the quality of provision.

9.7.6 ACCOUNTABILITY AND CONTROL

Accountability is of central concern in the collegiate concept. The Collegium is answerable to the government for its decisions and actions. At the same time it is answerable to its constituent colleges. The head of the Collegium would act as the accounting officer and would have to give an account to Parliament for the service rendered and the resources utilised.

Control is allied to public accountability. The Collegium provides for ongoing monitoring and control in areas such as financing, academic standards and professional requirements. The processes envisaged to achieve such ends include visitation, written reports, statistical reports, audits and inspections. The aim is to ensure that optimum programme results are achieved through the most economic utilisation of resources. Financial control would occur at the budgeting stage and at the auditing stage of the financial processes, ensuring both *a priori* and *ex post facto* control.

9.7.7 POLICY-MAKING

The collegiate approach allows for policy to be made in consultation with legislative values and community values. The Collegium is especially well placed to conduct an analysis of its policies and an evaluation thereof. These assessments would highlight the appropriateness of the policies, as well as indicating where they are failing and why they are failing. This process would ensure, over time, that the corporate objectives are being achieved, thereby enhancing the social efficiency efforts (concern for social development) and the functional efficiency efforts (the best use of resources). Corporate outcomes would be worthwhile and appropriate.

9.7.8 FINANCING

The Collegium would control the financing of the college sector from budgeting through implementation to auditing and accountability. It would audit the proposals for expenditure as well as the expenditure itself, thereby utilising the corporate wisdom and experience to assure value for money and proper priorities.

The Collegium would work in close association with the Treasury, the Department of National Education, and its constituent colleges. The government would control the overall allocation of financial resources to the college sector, the Collegium would be responsible for the general allocation of the monies, and each individual college would

be responsible for the utilisation of its own finances according to its approved budget.

9.7.9 STAFFING OF THE COLLEGE SECTOR

The Collegium provides a staff function for the teacher educator line function. It would consist of experts who would advise and assist the professional and administrative staff.

An integral function of the Collegium would be to provide education and training facilities for the teacher educators to develop their professional attitude, skills, knowledge and expertise. The standard of the service in colleges would also be enhanced by the evaluation of staff for crendentialling. Such individual education and development would occur *via* induction courses, as well as formal qualifications, sector liaison and communication, and informal initiatives on a national, regional or local basis. Good lines of communication, both lateral and vertical, would ensure that the contributions of the leaders in the field would filter through the system.

9.7.10 PLANNING AND ADVISING

Planning in the Collegium would be corporate planning, permitting the assembly of specialist experts and capitalising on the wealth of experience in the sector. This would ensure better planning and better administration. As the planning would be derived from within the sector, any evaluation and adaptation would be easier to effect and

implement. Planning would therefore form part of an effective control function, aiding the taking of effective steps to counter any organisational deficiencies and management problems in the sector.

The Collegium would also be in a strong position to monitor policy shortcomings, to conduct relevant research and to assemble the requisite data which would be used in planning, decision-making or policy-making. It would also be well placed to coordinate planning and policy-making and to inform the Minister, as it would be in close touch with the actualities of the service rendered and the responses of those affected by the policies made and the decisions taken, such as the schools, colleges, teachers and students.

9.7.11 WORK PROCEDURES

Professionals are usually given a fair measure of autonomy in their work situation. However the general work requirements and guidelines for teacher educators would be laid down by the collegiate sector itself, with the profession setting work parameters for the profession. No longer would professional teacher educators be dictated to by bureaucrats in Departments of Education. No longer would colleges be lumped with schools for administrative and professional control purposes.

From the administrative perspective, the work procedures would lay down the relations between the colleges, and for the colleges with the Collegium. Powers, responsibilities

and obligations towards others would be specified to ensure the smooth running and effective articulation of the sector.

9.7.12 ORGANISATION

The Collegium concept represents an attempt to organise the teacher education structures so that they are coordinated into a sufficiently cohesive and unitary system on a national basis. This system allows for the coordination of the financial, physical and human resources, yet it allows for the diversification of activities which are compatible with the effective achievement of the overall goals of the collegiate sector.

The organisation envisaged includes coordination with the other tertiary sectors and with the school sector, ensuring harmony and a unified effort.

Certain facets of the organisation implicit in the collegiate model need to be highlighted.

9.7.12.1 DECENTRALISATION

Riekert (in van Vuuren 1983:164) holds that:

> "The maximum devolution of government authority and greater decentralisation of administration is one of the cornerstones of successful...state administration".

The Collegium would be the overall umbrella body in charge of teacher education, but the regional and local levels of the collegiate sector would be crucial in the formulation and implementation of the collegiate goals and they would carry a considerable and real responsibility in the system.

This model of administration ensures control and uniformity in general matters, but it would also ensure that policies and decisions are suited to local circumstances.

9.7.12.2 DELEGATED LEGISLATION

The Collegium would amount to an instance of delegated legislation as it would function under enabling legislation and carry considerable legislative, executive and administrative powers. This would place the control of professional services and professional persons in professional hands, as is found in various statutory councils in South Africa.

The Collegium would supplement the legislation *via* proclamations and regulations which would be binding on the college sector. This would allow for responsible executors, with specialist knowledge, to be flexible in their administration of the college sector. The model being proposed permits a professional form of administration. This would be carried out within the general principles and intentions of the legislature. Unforeseen contingencies and variations according to local conditions could be handled immediately. This would promote a more effective provision of teacher education.

9.7.12.3 DELEGATION OF POWER AND RESPONSIBILITY

The Collegium represents a system of delegated power and responsibility. Parliament would devolve power to the Collegium, which, in turn, would devolve the power and

responsibilty to use the power effectively to its constituent bodies and institutions at the regional and local levels. In this way the capacity to take final decisions is transferred to the lower levels of administration, but Parliament retains the ultimate control.

Such devolution of power would assure the autonomy of the individual college councils within specified parameters. Although the Collegium would continue to review the colleges, variations according to local conditions would be permitted to a fair extent. The Collegium, as the superior body, would retain the responsibility for the use of the discretionary power delegated, as required for public accountability.

9.7.12.4 COMMITTEE SYSTEM AS A *MODUS OPERANDI*

The collegiate model is designed to function predominantly on a committee basis, wherein a number of expert representatives combine their knowledge and expertise in planning and decision-making. Some committees would be managerial, others advisory in nature. The whole collegiate structure is designed for democratic participation. The aim is not rigid conformity, but rather a broad movement in a common direction. As the views of the participants are sought, understanding will be enhanced and a greater confidence will be engendered by a sense of fairness in the system.

The Collegium is a mechanism for controlling conflict internal and external to the collegiate sector, thereby

meeting the Robbins (1963:280) ideal of "...harmonisation of interests along systematic lines and on a fairly durable basis".

The outcome of the collegiate system of professional administration would accord with the aims set out by Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:239) for the end of discriminative practices, a greater promotion of public interest by the administrators, a greater participation between public administrators and their clients (i.e. teacher educators), and relevant, responsible and responsive public institutions.

9.8 ISSUES FROM A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

A number of problems and issues from the past in the provision of teacher education have been addressed in the collegiate model.

9.8.1 FRAGMENTATION AND THE UNITARY SYSTEM IDEAL

The fragmentation of education at the time of Union has been deplored, especially the alignment of colleges of education with the school sector. The 'own affairs' fragmentation has also been decried. The collegiate model places colleges firmly in the tertiary education sector and accords colleges status as institutions of higher education.

The model of educational administration proposed ensures that education will be provided in a systematic and organic way. The current divided system of education would be replaced by a single Ministry of Education, in which all

aspects of educational provision would be coordinated and articulated. In particular, colleges of education would no longer function in 'splendid isolation'. The Gericke Commission (1969) ideal would be realised, of eliminating undesirable and detrimental diversity and ensuring a viable and workable unity in diversity. This would apply for all teacher education however, and not only to white education. The provision of teacher education would be based on sound planning, administration and evaluation.

9.8.2 CONTROL OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In the past, teacher education control has been seen as rightly being the function of Education Departments by some, and the perogative of universities by others. This debate has occured over many decades in South Africa and abroad. Both universities and Education Departments have their drawbacks as management vehicles for teacher education. Education Departments are not suitable management structures for the control of tertiary institutions of higher education, as they are bureaucratic structures and are closely aligned with schooling.

The de Lange Commission (in Behr 1984:309) stated that:

> "..teacher training colleges do not enjoy an autonomous status within the framework of of higher education since they are subject to control by education departments in academic and administrative matters, suspicious in regard to academic and professional standards..."

De Lange held that the professional status of the teacher educator should be upheld.

Universities are similarly not suitable vehicles for the control of the collegiate sector. They do not recognise and encourage the development of important qualities in teachers, other than the intellectual. The Pretorius Commission (1951) held that "The qualities essential to the teacher cannot be acquired in a purely intellectual way".

Universities do not have the resources to take on responsibilty for the collegiate sector, even if this is deemed desirable. The college sector is large, consisting of perhaps 25-35% of tertiary registrations. The time and costs involved would be prohibitive. A considerable complement of university staff would be required to monitor programmes and provide sufficient professional and academic guidance to the colleges.

There are also problems associated with colleges affiliating to universities. It has been found that the emphasis has become too academic as university criteria of excellence are applied. The James Committee (1972) referred to this as "...a false conception of academic respectability". If the college sector was absorbed into the universities, vast numbers of non-matriculants would naturally be resented on the university campuses and the status of teachers would be adversely affected. If degree courses were expected of teachers in training, insufficient teachers would be trained.

Some of the concerns of the van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974) nominally ascribed to the need for colleges to have

their own mission. He felt that colleges should not be mere appendages of the university because of the inherent goal conflict and the loss of institutional autonomy by the colleges. He felt that colleges should be free to realise their own particular mission as professional trainers of teachers. Colleges are mission oriented rather than discipline oriented in the university sense. Having their own mission would result in teacher training and colleges overcoming the stigma of inferiority encountered in some quarters.

The solution proposed is that of the college sector being independent and ascribing to its own mission and criteria of excellence.

9.8.3 THE COLLEGE MISSION

It is a central tenet of this research that colleges have a place in higher education and a right to their own mandate. These principles logically extend into the college sector being autonomous in its administration, yet linked functionally to the other areas of educational provision.

The Gericke Commission (1969) visualised a Professional Council for the training of teachers, consisting of professional experts, with advisory and directive powers, which would promote coordination on a nationwide basis. It held that teacher training was sufficiently important to be served by a separate body with teacher training as its sole responsibility and to which it could give its undivided attention. It would be constituted to inspire confidence in

the authorities. The body was perceived as being a professional body rather than an advisory body. Gericke believed that the educational principles on which teacher training should be based should be formulated by educationists invoved in teacher training. Such a body would advise the Minister on general policy and help to implement that policy. The Collegium concept meets the Gericke criteria precisely.

9.8.4 PROFESSIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Part of a discrete college mission encapsulated in the collegiate concept is that the courses offered should be relevant and appropriate to the needs of well trained teachers. This means that there should not be an overzealous striving after inappropriate academic standards and a preoccupation with academic scholarship. A balance needs to be kept between the academic and professional aspects of a course, which should be integrated into a cohesive and relevant whole. For this reason, the concurrent course would be entrenched, as it is the mode of course which epitomises the integration of academic and professional concerns at the same time. It is also the nature of the courses which colleges of education have traditionally offered and which they accomplish well. In the collegiate model, it is proposed that all teacher training would be undertaken by the colleges eventually, including secondary school training, as happens in Scotland, with the concurrent course being used for secondary teacher training as well. This would result in financial economies of scale, as well as

assuring a quality teacher education for all the school phases.

The prestige of the teaching profession needs to be maintained and promoted. One of the ways to do this is to provide courses of training which are unique and appropriate to the training required. Such courses would establish their own validity and reputation in the teacher marketplace. Such courses should be sound and not too instrumental, yet they would be applied to an extent, as all professional education has to be to be effective.

Related to these perspectives, the college mission would entail the articulation of pre-service and in-service teacher education and training, and awards of degree status by the Collegium would be an intermediate and long term goal, to cater especially for the capable students.

9.8.5 MAINTENANCE OF STANDARDS IN TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS

For colleges to be autonomous and realise their own mission, they would need to assure the standards and quality of their qualifications. The Collegium model is designed to achieve sound standards in the academic and professional aspects of the training. This would be achieved *via* a coordinated policy to achieve parity between the colleges in their standards and by mechanisms to raise the standards of college courses throughout the college sector. The de Lange dictum is central to the collegiate concept: "The quality of

teachers, more than any other factor, determines the quality of education".

The Collegium would be charged with the responsibility of guaranteeing the quality of the teacher education courses and the calibre of the teacher educators, to realise this end. It must aim to achieve comparable standards between institutions and regions, and assist colleges with backlogs to close the gaps. This would be achieved *via* a system of joint advisory and coordinating committees and a reciprocal sharing of professional knowledge and experience.

9.8.6 COORDINATION AND CONSULTATION

The Hofmeyr Commission (1924) highlighted the need to coordinate education on a national basis. In 1948 the de Villiers Commission reiterated the need to develop a national policy and mooted the idea of a coordinating central body to lay down the general education policy.

The National Education Advisory Bill, 1962 (Act 96 of 1962) had as one of its aims "...to consult on broad fundamental principles of sound education and to promote cooperation and coordination of educational policy". In particular, Senator de Klerk, Minister of Education in 1969, noted that there was no uniform control of teacher training and no cooperation, consultation or coordination between the different authorities concerned and that considerable disparity and diversity existed in teacher education. The Schumann Commission (1964) highlighted the need for close

contact in order to counteract the divergence in courses, selection of students, admissions and certification.

The Collegium proposes a realistic system based on consultation in order to achieve a national policy for teacher education in South Africa. It encompasses a nationwide system of teacher training, with coordination at the national level so that the training of teachers would constitute an educational whole. The collegiate concept would permit teacher training to be melded into an organic unity.

9.8.7 POLITICAL AND PROFESSIONAL CONTROL OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROVISION

The government has felt the need in the past to control teacher education. The profession has also been keen to have a say in the training of its professionals, as generally happens in professional education. The colleges have been keen to have more professional autonomy. Robbins (1963) referred to academic freedom as "...the institution being immune to interference and control by the government". The tensions implicit in these entrenched positions have been accommodated in the Collegium concept. The initiative for teacher education policy will remain with the Minister, but will be tempered by giving the collegiate sector the maximum say in running their affairs, in consultation with the profession. Such a compromise balances the academic freedom of the colleges and the legitimate claims of the government

to establish priorities and require accountability for the use of public funds.

The professional control of teacher education will thus not be solely in political hands, nor will it be solely in professional hands. What is being proposed is a partnership in the form of an appropriate model for the professional administration of the college sector. The partnership would be realised in one body, the Collegium, which would have a decisive say. It would be strongly influenced by all the stakeholders in teacher education, in particular its member colleges. This would ensure that teacher education is equivalent throughout the country, but not identical. The Collegium would allow courses to be different, yet of comparable status. In this way standards would be maintained without rigidly enforced central control by politicians.

9.9 SOLUTION OF CURRENT PROBLEM AREAS

The Collegium model is specifically designed to solve some of the problems in the provision of teacher education which have currently been identified. Some have been mentioned above; others will be highlighted briefly.

(i) Backlogs in teacher education provision arising from past injustices in apartheid funding will be specifically addressed by the Collegium. A separate budget is envisaged, with the Collegium assisting in determining the needs and prioritising projects and programmes;

(ii) Disparities in allocating funds will not be tolerated as the colleges will have a say in their detailed funding and ensure that monies are allocated equitably throughout the sector;

(iii) The resources of the collegiate system will be utilised equitably and optimally. Underutilised resources (plant and personnel) will be fully utilised. The seventeen Education Department bureaucracy will be replaced by the unitary Collegium which will effect economies of scale;

(iv) Sufficient teachers of an acceptable calibre would be trained by the Collegium. There is a great need to move towards an acceptable pupil/teacher ratio and to provide education for the estimated two million school children who have never been to school in South Africa;

In addition to providing sufficient teachers by the full and rational utilisation of resources, the quality of teachers would be improved *via* the in-service provision of teacher education. In time, the problem of unqualified and underqualified teachers would be ameliorated;

De Lange held that a system of education aimed at the optimum development of individual talent, the promotion of economic growth and the improvement of the quality of life of the people is predicated upon a sufficient number of suitable and well-qualified teachers. The Collegium is designed to address these needs;

(v) The lack of access to schooling is of extreme concern, as is the need to provide education of a comparable standard for all the pupils in the land. The Collegium is the structure which would be best placed to train the teachers in order to realise the ideal of universal primary education. This would ensure functional literacy and impact on the employment figures, and provide the basis for an effective democratic form of government; and

(vi) The current system of bureaucratic control, with syllabuses being provided by bureaucrats, and examinations being set external to the colleges by bureaucrats, would cease. Instead teacher educators would be empowered as professionals, and guided by fellow professionals, in structures designed to promote professional participation, consultation and negotiation within the collegiate structures. Inspections in connection with course validation, institutional accreditation and the credentialling of lecturers would be conducted by fellow professionals.

9.10 CONSIDERATIONS FROM AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

A preview of the provision of teacher education in other countries, and the issues arising therefrom, have highlighted perspectives and insights which are useful in considering proposals for the provision of teacher education in South Africa. Some of these issues and perspectives have been incorporated into the collegiate concept.

9.10.1 MODELS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION PROVISION

The Collegium model has similarities to models which occur elsewhere in the world.

(i) The National Educational Commission in China is similar to the Collegium in certain respects. It falls under the State Council. It executes the policy of the government, reports to the government on educational development, seeks government approval for policy measures, and formulates and issues regulations and directions which govern the work of education on all levels. The feature of working closely with the government, yet independent of it in a way, is captured in the collegiate model;

(ii) In pre-unification West Germany, education was coordinated at the federal level, whilst allowing the greatest possible accountability and local option in each region. Similar features have been built into the collegiate system; and

(iii) The Scottish idea of colleges of education being 'national organisations regionally organised' is integral to the collegiate concept. The colleges in Scotland are financed by the Scottish Education Department, but enjoy a great deal of independence.

In Scotland virtually all teacher education occurs in colleges of education and this is central to the collegiate concept. Lomax (1973:153) felt that the qualities required of a teacher often did not receive due recognition and

encouragement in an academic atmosphere, such as at a university, whereas these qualities would be safeguarded in the training colleges. For example, the Mc Nair Committee (1944) in England felt that it was desirable for graduates to receive their post graduate training at a college of education, as happens in Scotland. The validation of teacher education courses in Scotland, including degree courses, is *via* the CNAA, and courses are accredited by the General Teaching Council for Scotland. (It is noted that this system is currently changing, but the model has been very successful and is of value in the present deliberations).

9.10.2 THE NATURE OF THE TEACHING AWARDS

It is commonplace in a number of countries for teaching to be a fully degreed profession. This is a long term aim of the collegiate proposals, although diploma qualifications will predominate initially and for some time to come.

In 1925 the Burnham Committee in England felt that degree qualifications were more appropriate to teachers. Burnham envisaged a specific form of training in a specialised institution with an academic and professional orientation, which is the essence of the collegiate university concept. The British universities introduced degree courses *via* the CNAA, or else in consultation with other universities. Although the CNAA is being superseded in Britain, it remains a viable strategy to follow in South Africa.

The collegiate concept incorporates a degree awarding body for those colleges/courses that are of a sufficiently high

academic standard. The idea is for colleges to upgrade their diplomas to a higher standard. Ultimately some colleges will attain degree status for some or all of their courses. The collegiate university will offer the facility for students at the non-degree awarding colleges to achieve degree status *via* building on their diploma studies. In this way colleges will receive a corporate charter, as it unwise for each college to become a degree awarding institution, because of the number of colleges involved, the variations in the sizes of colleges and the diversity of standards. The collegiate structure would guarantee and safeguard the standards of excellence. This degree-giving mechanism would cater for the aspirations of the colleges and aid them to attain a higher status by reason of their own work and merits.

Another advantage of having qualifications awarded nationally, as happened with the CNAA, is that all teachers would hold the same professional qualification, as there would be a national recognition of qualifications and a ready system for the accreditation of qualifications. The standardisation of teacher qualifications on academic and professional grounds would result in a nationally acceptable standard for teacher training derived by the profession itself. This system would avoid the great diversity of forms and standards, as happens in the USA for example.

In South African terms, the collegiate system would break down the schism which currently exists between primary teacher training and secondary teacher training, as the qualifications would be offered in the same institutions and

would be of equivalent value, although they would vary according to the training needs for the particular phase. Each qualification would be pre-eminently suitable for teaching as it would be relevant, appropriate and pertinent to the needs of teachers.

9.10.3 THE IDEAL OF A UNIFIED SERVICE

The Mc Nair Committee (1944) ideals are reflected in the collegiate proposals. Mc Nair visualised a unified service, with the training institutions fused into a national training system, and with a central body supplying the initiative and motive power. Such a central body would be representative of all the interests concerned and would be responsible for the maintenance of standards, the consideration of the training methods and the coordination of national policy. Although the system would be unified, it would accommodate a reasonable diversity between colleges within an integrated service. Mc Nair feared the centralisation of power and authority, but felt such a system could work because it would be independent of direct goverment control, the control being by the professional sector to a significant extent.

9.10.4 THE BINARY PROBLEM

British colleges were afflicted by what was termed the binary problem, in which the university sector of higher education was split from the other institutions of higher education. The Collegium concept lifts the colleges fully into the higher education sphere, in an articulated system

of higher education, with the collegiate university model tangibly demonstrating the full higher education status of the college sector.

9.11 FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROVISION

The Collegium holds the promise of solving some of the problems associated with funding and finances in teacher education provision.

9.11.1 ARTICULATION OF FINANCIAL PROVISION OF EDUCATION

With the three Commissions proposed, namely for schooling, higher education and post secondary education, within a unitary body, education in South Africa would be placed on a basis which would allow for sound financial planning and control, with an integrated approach involving articulation throughout the education sector.

In the Commission for Higher Education, no one sector would dominate. Financial planning and control would be achieved holistically, without any sector impinging on another. The tecnikon sector, the university sector and the college sector would each be funded according its needs and deserts, within a central and unified vision for higher education. Not only would the articulation occur laterally, but the articulation would range within the college sector from the Collegium, through the regional structures to the individual

college councils in a two way exchange of information and perspectives.

9.11.2 GOVERNMENT/COLLEGE FINANCIAL INTERFACE

There is a need for a separation between the political body which determines policy and sets the financial limits on spending in an education sector, and the expert body with the necessary knowledge to carry out the policy wisely, fairly and economically. The Collegium would be charged with implementing the financial policy principles in practice. It would be responsible for the detailed allocation of the monies made available to it as the expert body. As such it would act as the broker between the colleges and the government.

In order for such a system to work, it is necessary for the Collegium to maintain close contact with the government, so that it can reconcile the government interests with the college interests. For this reason Education Department and Treasury personnel would serve on the Collegium in an advisory and liaison capacity. Such a close liaison with the government would ensure a sympathy for problems being encountered. At the same time the government would retain the ultimate financial control, which effectively amounts to overall control of the sector. In effect, the Collegium manages the affairs of the college sector on trust.

9.11.3 INSTITUTIONAL FINANCIAL AUTONOMY

Although the ultimate responsibility for expenditure would

lie with the Collegium, the model is designed to ensure the maximum freedom for institutions to manage their own affairs. Operational freedom would be allowed within the limits set by the Collegium, in order to permit prudent college management and to foster initiative and responsibilty at the local level.

9.11.4 ACCOUNTABILITY

Financial planning and allocation would be based on the collective wisdom of the collegiate sector. Because accountability and control would be on a corporate college basis *via* the Collegium, accountability would be integral to the collegiate structures, therby promoting individual institutional accountability as an integral part of the corporate college accountabilty. Those institutions which adversely affect the financial parameters of the sector are likely to be brought into line pretty quickly and firmly by the rest of the college sector, as all the colleges would be prejudiced thereby.

9.11.5 COST EFFECTIVENESS ON A SECTORIAL BASIS

Because the provision of teacher education would occur on a sectorial basis, it would be more cost effective. Economies of scale would be realised by the colleges conducting all the teacher education, rather than the universities providing some of this service. With the rationalisation in real terms across the sector, the colleges would be capable of addressing the need for sufficient teachers of good calibre. The collegiate sector would have direct control

over all the financial aspects of teacher training and would be able to aspire to a high level of internal and external efficiency. The rationalisation of courses and resources across the sector, and the close auditing of resources used, would aid the realisation of this end.

The Collegium would address matters such as student funding, and control matters, such as building programmes, as part of its resource allocation process. Control would be aided *via* a system of tapping into the corporate wisdom and experience in such matters. As a body of experts, it would intervene on its own behalf. It would also have legitimate visitorial rights and so it would carry weight when advising or negotiating with a member college over a matter of resources.

The Collegium is in effect a system of advisory sub-committees of experts which are available for advice and consultation, including on matters of financial concern. Instead of acting in splendid and wasteful isolation, colleges would be able to assist each other to achieve individual and corporate economic efficiencies. The Collegium would promote an effective system of inter-institutional collaboration, cooperation and consultation with beneficial financial results. Although colleges would be relatively autonomous, they would be advised expertly and impartially by the Collegium. The Collegium would also perform a monitoring role and it would be a source of guidance and control.

9.11.6 ADDRESSING BACKLOGS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The collegiate system has been specifically devised to address the backlogs in educational provision as a result of differential funding under the apartheid regimen. The deficit funding would be *via* a separate budget, similar to the development account envisaged by Malherbe (1954:542). This deficit funding would be utilised to maintain, develop and improve the educational facilities, especially in the black colleges where the need has been identified as being the greatest. The Collegium would have the standing, the information and the corporate perspective to address backlog issues reasonably and effectively. It would also have a corporate vested interest in such matters when addressing issues such as academic and professional standards, accreditation and validation requirements. For example, sufficient library resources would be a pre-requisite for course accreditation and would need to be addressed.

9.12 ORGANISATION

The Collegium model has been structured, and placed within a certain organisational pattern, to achieve specific ends in teacher education provision. Aspects of the principles and planning involved to achieve these ends will be highlighted briefly.

9.12.1 THE COLLEGIATE CONCEPT IN ORGANISATIONAL TERMS

The Collegium has been designed to achieve a close working relationship between politicians, professionals, academics

and administrators. It would accommodate the interests and concerns of each of these sectors which have a central and legitimate interest in teacher training.

The model being proposed already exists in essence in South Africa in the statutory professional bodies, such as the South African Medical and Dental Council, which has a limited form of self government. Worrall (1980:105) has described such bodies as "...own qualification-prescribing, conduct-supervising and standards-maintaining bodies". Such professional bodies work in close liaison with the State department. They operate under the control of the Minister according to powers prescribed by regulation.

The collegiate model is based on an affiliated, cooperative federal structure, in which the colleges are separate, yet linked. The corporate structure is realised in the Collegium, a central body which has a charter to underwrite teacher education qualifications. The structure is highly articulated, with the colleges being linked to each other, whilst the collegiate sector is linked to the other phases and sectors of education.

The qualification awarding aspect of the Collegium follows fairly closely the well established model of a collegiate university. Dent (1977:112) describes a collegiate university system as an organised federation of approved institutions working in cooperation with other approved institutions, constituting a university, and thereby

assuming primary responsibility for their mutual governance and the quality of the courses they offer.

The Collegium is an amalgam of a variety of professional and management bodies which function independently, yet in relation to each other. It has features and functions similar to the CUP (South Africa) which oversees that sector of higher education, the CNAA (England) which approves academic courses, CATE (England) which approves professional courses, and NAB (England) which deals with the administrative aspects of teacher education. In all these areas, sub-committees of the Collegium would act in a general supervisory way and intervene directly only if the system becomes dysfunctional.

The Collegium would also act as an advisory body to the government and as an executive body that sees that the government wishes are carried out as envisaged in broad terms. It would be accountable to the government on a corporate basis. The Collegium would be responsible for college sector planning, control and organisation. This would incorporate setting guidelines and parameters for the overall development of the teacher education sector, including the allocation of financial resources made available by the government. The Collegium would be bound up in the budgeting process, as it would have the information required on the needs of the colleges and the sector. It could also advise on the relative priorities of claims for capital funding by the various colleges.

The Collegium would ensure that there is no unwarranted overlapping and duplication of effort. In any system where decisions may have to be made in favour of one of the member institutions, to the possible detriment of another member institution, a facility must be built in to challenge such a decision, with the right of further appeal to the Minister who is ultimately responsible. It is envisaged that, like NCATE in the USA, the business of the Collegium would be conducted in such a way as to avoid this final channel of appeal ever having to be used.

The Collegium would be charged with realising the twin aims of control and development. Control would be effected *via* mechanisms such as budget and financial control, organisational structures, institutional accreditation, course validation and teacher educator certification. However, these same mechanisms would be ideal for improving the quality of the system.

9.12.2 STAKEHOLDERS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

A crucial series of interfaces in the collegiate system is that between the Collegium and the government, the other stakeholders in teacher education, such as the teachers, and the individual member colleges. These aspects will be considered below.

9.12.2.1 THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT

The State is responsible for the provision of teacher education. In the collegiate model, the government would be

in overall control, with most of the work being entrusted to the Collegium. The primary responsibility of the State would be to achieve the optimum allocation of resources to accomplish the desired ends. The State would control the level of funding and the mechanisms of financial support. It would also provide a general supervision and would call the Collegium to account for its actions and decisions.

The government would be solely responsible for the backlogs in teacher education as the Collegium would be placed under enormous pressure if it had to decide how to divide its finite financial resources between current needs and correcting past injustices. The Collegium would have a fair knowledge of the backlog needs and priorities, and could advise the government in this regard and make representations to the Minister when necessary.

The question arises why the government is not simply placed completely in charge of teacher education. Problems have arisen in the past all over the world, and especially in South Africa, when institutions of higher learning have been controlled by politicians. Apartheid education administration has had an enormously negative effect on black colleges in particular. The Collegium would be a mechanism for avoiding any legislative intervention in the name of accountability, cost cutting and political expediency.

The Collegium is based on the realisation that colleges within a corporate system have a corporate capacity and

interest. The role of the government is to ensure that the decisions are fair and just. It should avoid, and see that others avoid, political, sectional and egocentric interests. The government would have representatives on the Collegium and its various sub-committees, but the management of the collegiate sector would be predominantly in professional hands. The constituent colleges would have an impetus to make the collegiate system work, so as to avoid the college sector being taken over by government administrators.

9.12.2.2 THE ROLE OF THE MINISTER

The Minister has a crucial role to play in realising the collegiate concept. He would ultimately be responsible and in charge, yet he should hand over as much responsibility to the Collegium as is possible.

The Minister would be responsible for determining the macro policy for the provision of teacher education. He would determine broad general policy with regard to:

- the overall provision and changing priorities in teacher education;

- the financial provision of concurrent and capital costs. The Collegium would advise the Minister of its corporate needs, the Minister would decide on the level of funding, secure the funds and channel them to the Collegium which would disburse them according to the agreed bugetary provisions;

- the basic conditions of service of the teacher educator sector;

- the minimum standards in teacher education;

- macro policy decisions, planning and evaluation;

- control and implementing accountability provisions; and

- the allocation of resources (financial, material and human resources).

In all these areas of concern, the Minister would establish the principles, guidelines and minimum standards; the Collegium would implement these requirements and strive for the highest standards within the parameters laid down by the Minister.

In controlling the collegiate sector, the Minister would be required to consult the Collegium and give reasons if he acts contrary to the recommendations of the Collegium. The Collegium should be enabled to require reasons for the non-acceptance of their proposals. This is similar to the General Teaching Council for Scotland which is permitted to require an explanation from their chief political official if their recommendations are rejected. The Collegium should have access to the Minister to initiate negotiations, to present proposals, to have an input on discussions, and be able to comment on financial matters.

9.12.2.3 THE ROLE OF THE OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

The Collegium would not function effectively in isolation; nor should it attempt to do so. It is fundamental that the Collegium should receive feedback and input from those groupings that have a vested interest in teacher training and are directly affected by it. The main interest and reference groups are:

- the government (Minister, Treasury, and public administrators), would have direct representation on the Collegium. The government would also be represented on the regional bodies and possibly on the individual college councils *via* ministerial representation, which could be a member of the Collegium;

- the Education Departments, which are the employing authorities; they would be represented on the national, regional and individual college levels;

- the organised teaching profession which represents the teachers and upholds the profession. The teachers' societies would be represented on the individual college councils and senates, and on regional structures. The statutory professional teachers' body would be represented on the Collegium;

- the CUP and CTP would have representation on the Collegium, as well as being represented on the joint body, the Commission of Higher Education.

- the community and the private sector are important constituencies in teacher education. They would be represented on the individual college councils, on the regional bodies and on the Collegium; and

- teacher and student representation is important. They would be involved on sub-committees of the college councils and senates, such as the practice teaching committee, on syllabus committees at a regional level and may be represented on the Collegium sub-committees as required.

With such broad based representation at the central, regional and local levels, the control of education would be balanced and not purely in the hands of the politicians and bureaucrats, as occurs *de facto* to a large extent at the moment. Yet these structures are sufficiently balanced to ensure a responsiveness to public policies. The Collegium should achieve in practice the belief of Niblett (SATC 8:1981:vi) on the educational management relationship:

> "...the social contract between the profession, the educational establishments and the State must be recognised for what it is: a partnership in which no single party should be a free agent".

The Collegium has the potential in its conceptualisation to aspire to this ideal.

9.12.2.4 THE ROLE OF THE INDIVIDUAL INSTITUTION

The individual institution would be an integral part of the Collegium system, yet it would retain a fair degree of autonomy and self-government. The individual institution

would be controlled by a college council. An organogram of a South African college's organisational structure is presented in figure 17:

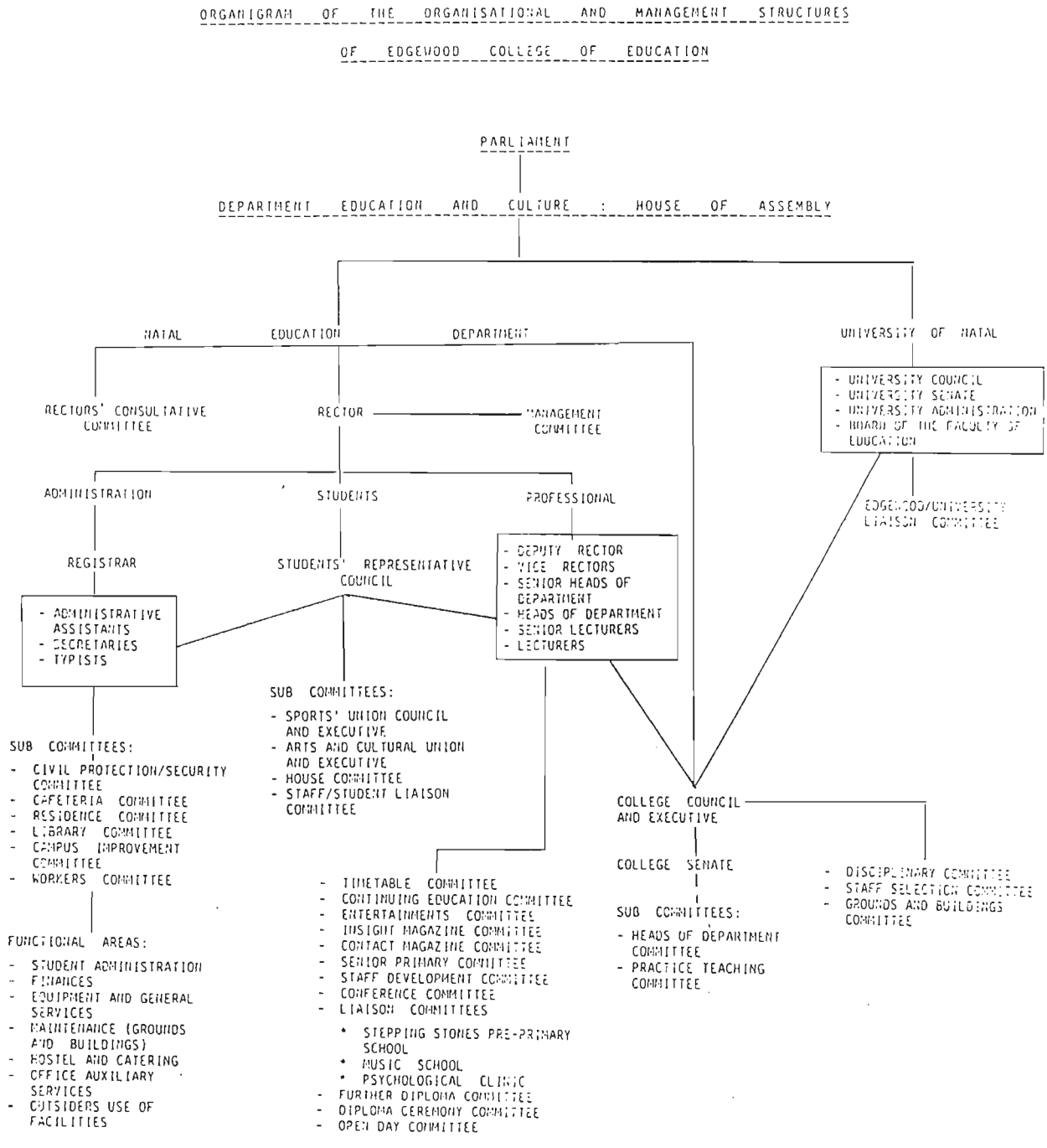

Figure 17 - Organogram of the organisational structure of a college.

The college council would be the primary administrative and control body. It would be responsible for the administration and financial matters of the college. Recurrent expenditure would be controlled by the college council on the basis of budgets agreed upon by the council in liaison with the Collegium.

The college council would consist of representatives of the government, the Collegium, the local Education Department, the organised teaching profession, the college staff and the community, including private sector interests.

The college senate would be the primary academic body falling under the college council. It would be responsible for academic and professional matters, such as curricula, courses, subjects, syllabuses, practice teaching, examinations and the certificating of its students.

The individual college would be endowered with powers of initiative, decision-making and management. It would decide on admissions, subject to quota, and on the allocation of its financial resources. Although each college would be legally independent, and retain full control over its own affairs, it would be bound by its corporality in the collegiate sector. Colleges would be federated in their main aims and general direction and would take their decisions within the framework of the common Collegium aims and the national needs. Thus a college could decide to offer a course in, say, school management, subject to approval through the Collegium channels, but it could not offer a

course in banking management. Its autonomy would be within the circumscribed parameters of teacher education needs and practice.

The simultaneous independence and bondage of colleges appear to be antithetical and these facets will be considered in more detail below.

9.12.3 AUTONOMY AND CORPORATENESS OF COLLEGES

The colleges would be bound in a corporate collegiate arrangement, yet each college would be given the greatest degree of autonomy which is consistent with the corporate aims of collegiate sector.

9.12.3.1 AUTONOMY AND ACADEMIC FREEDOM

A tension exists between autonomy, defined as institutional freedom, and accountability, defined as social control. The Collegium model has been specifically designed to accommodate both of these ideals. As an example, a model of complete academic autonomy would be a privately owned and funded college which was only accountable to its clientele (sponsors). It would do what it wished, irrespective of national and professional needs. Its qualifications might not be recognised and its graduates might not be employable. On the other hand, a college with no autonomy may be managed by bureaucrats, funded by the State, and its courses might be prescribed by political interests. Its examinations, and the marking thereof, would be effected by government personnel external to the college and the profession. This

model would be found in a totalitarian society. The Collegium falls between these two extremes.

The Robbins Committee (1963) in England perceived college autonomy extending to appointing staff, controlling the curriculum and standards and admissions.

The Weaver Committee (1966) in England similarly envisaged college autonomy in curriculating, staffing, student selection and admission, and budgeting.

In the collegiate model, institutional autonomy is circumscribed within a framework of choice and responsibility. Academic freedom would be achieved initially on a corporate basis. The Collegium would stand against political and government excesses, because it could keep the individual colleges in the right direction. College academic freedom would be tempered by professional peer review in assessing course validation, institutional accreditation and teacher educator certification and licensure to practice. The curtailment of autonomy would be in line with professional limitations found throughout the developed world.

9.12.3.2 CONSULTATION AND COORDINATION

In the collegiate structures, care must be taken not to elevate accountability and coordination to the level of bureaucratic control. The monitoring of the decentralised structures, processes and activities is required to ensure that there is no diminution of the common aims and

objectives at the national policy level. There is a need for a certain equality of standards in the provision of teacher education at the various institutions, as they are funded by the public and perform an important function on behalf of the public. Limits are required for the sake of efficiency in public spending, for example to ensure that there is no unnecessary duplication of courses, for the sake of quality of provision, for example in an equitable provision of the service by all colleges in the corporate sector, and for the sake of professional aims, such as standards and the comparativeness of the qualifications. With proper consultation and cooperation, such as in external examination moderation, the mutual recognition of courses can be realised.

9.12.3.3 NEGOTIATION AND THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

There is a need to make possible real participation, sharing of ideas, negotiation, and decision-making by representatives of all the groups within the collegiate sector. It is necessary to achieve cooperation and agreement on matters of common policy, including a fair and just allocation of resources. For this reason the collegiate structures should accommodate cooperative, democratic mechanisms and processes in order to involve the autonomous institutions in decision-making.

The de Lange Commission (1981) suggested structures to ensure centralised participation, negotiation, organisation,

coordination, control and joint decision-making on matters related to common policy, such as the allocation of resources, curricula, standards, and certification. Equally important in the collegiate system is regional decision-making based on wide representation and achieved *via* participation, coordination and control.

An important aspect of autonomy and corporateness is the balance between centralisation and decentralisation.

9.12.4 CENTRALISATION AND DECENTRALISATION ISSUES

The collegiate system is an example of a mixed system, a national system which is locally administered. The aim is a balance between centralised control and decentralised initiative. This aim is achieved in a coordinated system which is planned and controlled from the centre in order to take account of all the institutions, yet a value is placed upon the freedom of the institutions within the system. The advantage of the collegiate system is that the individual institutions form a part of the central process and have a direct input to the national deliberations. The result is that the decentralised initiatives are inspired by common principles, yet an allowance is made for the free development of institutions within the system.

The principle involved is that individual initiative is not incompatible with a 'system' and an 'ordered' arrangement. The central initiative ensures that the individual effort does not result in mutual frustration. Such a system ensures a balance between the need for national funding, planning

and coordination and the need for local flexibility and innovation. Such decentralisation would allow for the diversity in culture, religion and language which is central to the needs of the diverse South African population. At the same time the collegiate system would prevent fragmented and segmented decision-making in matters of broad policy which has occurred in the apartheid dispensation.

The value of centralised planning is that it ensures greater efficiency, a more economical use of resources and a more equitable service. Reforms in the system are easier to implement from the top. The central organisation and administration results in economies of scale and effectiveness. Central concerns would revolve around matters in the national interest, resource development, overall priority planning, complimentarity of institutional functioning, issues of merit and quality, and coordination aimed at long term planning for the collegiate sector.

The participation of the regional and local structures in the Collegium model means that local needs and interests can be accommodated and acted upon, thereby avoiding the excesses of a central bureaucracy. It is envisaged that the regions would not coincide with the current provincial parameters. There would probably be about a dozen regions in South Africa in order to realise the goals of the collegiate model. The region would not smother the local initiative, but would accord the greatest possible autonomy to the individual institution. The region would act as the mediating level between the central and local aspirations,

via a system of consultative bodies representative of all the colleges and with representation on the Collegium. The regional body would act as an administrative coordinator and not as a policy-making body. It would coordinate central policy and administer the financial provisions, including the auditing of expenditure and providing accountability reports to the Collegium.

9.12.5 MANAGEMENT PARAMETERS

Management capabilities are central to the success of the collegiate model. The Collegium would be required to address the need to develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the college and regional managers. By holding in-service courses in educational management the Collegium would promote a greater accountability and efficiency in the collegiate structures *via* an enhanced self-regulation capacity.

Management efficiency and effectiveness would also be realised in the process of institutional assessment for accreditation purposes. During this periodic assessment, reviews would be made of the goals of the college management, as established by the particular college itself, the organisational arrangements in the college and their effectiveness, and the managerial efficiency and effectiveness of the college management.

The Robbins Committee (1963) in England held that the constraint on progress in the colleges was attributable to the poor quality of staff at colleges. The merit of an

educational institution depends, according to Robbins, on the quality of those who teach and those who learn in the colleges. The collegiate system is also predicated on the belief that the quality of management cannot be excluded from the equation. The professional/administrative interface is central to the management aspects of the collegiate model.

Let us consider some of the models which have been proposed and which have been used as templates for the collegiate model.

9.12.6 MODELS OF COLLEGIALITY

The collegiate model has parallels in other theoretical and practical perspectives in the South African experience.

9.12.6.1 UTAC ADVISORY BODY

The UTAC advisory body is designed to achieve a close cooperative working relationship between universities and technikons. It aims to avoid conflict between institutions, to derive common policy and to rationalise resources by promoting the optimum use of facilities. These aims are accomplished by facilitating planning, policy advising, creating organisational structures in which institutions can be integrated, making resources available and introducing control measures. This description of UTAC is closely aligned with the intention behind the collegiate model.

9.12.6.2 THE DE LANGE COMMISSION (1981) PROPOSALS

The de Lange vision was of a single Ministry controlling a unitary Education Department, which was not an extension of a monolithic bureaucratic authority. A common national education policy would be derived from shared decision-making, consultation, participation and negotiation.

De Lange was in favour of a system with a firm national policy and with active consultation and coordinating mechanisms. He proposed a bottom-up approach with the individual institution as the unit of management. The greatest degree of autonomy should be given to the individual institution that is consistent with accountability for education and the public expenditure on it. The autonomy should be tempered with the need for coordination to prevent unnnecessary duplication and any tendency to fragmented and segmented decision-making.

De Lange proposed a Permanent Committee for Tertiary Education to coordinate tertiary education, which would consist of three separate constituent parts for universities, technikons and colleges respectively.

A central concern was for a system that would promote the possibility of equal education opportunities and the establishment of facilities of equal quality.

The de Lange proposals would accord in essence with the collegiate proposals.

9.12.6.3 THE JAMES COMMITTEE PROPOSALS (1973: ENGLAND)

James envisaged a system with a central national council and regional councils, which would deal with the academic and professional matters relating to teacher education and training, yet the individual colleges would retain a measure of independence. The national body would be able to award teaching/education degrees up to the masters level. The national and regional bodies would be responsible for the recognition of all professional teaching qualifications, although the individual colleges would control their own examinations.

It was further envisaged that the government would, in consultation, decide on the total level of resources for the college sector. The national level body would then allocate the funds to the regional levels, which would allocate the resources, allowing for a fair degree of responsibility, to the individual college, which would be enabled to have an input in such matters.

9.12.7 PRESENT PROBLEMS AND FUTURE NEEDS

The organisational structures proposed in any model must be able to address current problems and future needs in the provision of teacher education.

9.12.7.1 PROBLEMS WITH THE CURRENT SYSTEM OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The de Lange Commission report criticised a number of aspects of the current educational dispensation in South Africa. These factors have been taken into account in deriving the collegiate proposals.

- the consultative mechanisms are inadequate - the collegiate model is based on a integrated consultative pattern;

- no body has been specifically established to bring about coordination at a national level with regard to all the sub-systems - the Collegium is part of such a system;

- no body is responsible for ongoing planning at the level of determination of overall policy - the Collegium is such a body in the teacher education sector;

- there is a high degree of centralisation in determining policy. For example, financial decisions are made centrally and outside of the education system itself with little devolution of authority in terms of decision-making. The Collegium involves a real devolution of power, coupled with wide consultation on policy decisions, and financial decisions would be made in close consultation with the collegiate sector;

- the control and management of tertiary education requires rationalisation - the Collegium is a model based on a true rationalisation of public resources, and not a mere

closure of colleges in the name of rationalisation as has been occurring in South Africa of late;

- the autonomy and individual character of institutions ought to be emphasised - the collegiate model allows for local option and institutional autonomy;

- more effective coordinated management is required *vis-a-vis* the utilisation of scarce resources - this need has been explicitly addressed in the collegiate model;

- the current practices of certification are not satisfactory - the collegiate model meets such a need *via* its corporate approach to accreditation of institutions and validation of courses; and

- the mobility and transfer of students between institutions requires attention - this aspect would be addressed within the collegiate system.

It is readily apparent that the collegiate system would overcome the perceived deficiencies of the current dispensation in teacher education.

9.13 STANDARDS IN EDUCATION

The provision of teacher education is a fundamental national endeavour. A country can progress or falter depending on the nature and standards of its teacher education. It is therefore in the national interest to ensure a quality service and product in teacher education. If teacher education in South Africa is going to fall predominantly

under the teacher education profession, the standards must be assured for the sake of the public and the State. The Collegium has been designed with this in mind.

9.13.1 ACCREDITATION, VALIDATION AND CERTIFICATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROVISION

The terms accreditation, validation and certification are related. They refer to variations on the theme of academic quality control in higher education. This control is exercised over the courses, the lecturers and the institutions themselves.

9.13.2 VALIDATION OF COURSES

The collegiate structure is predicated upon the corporate development of professional standards. The collegiate sector would be entrusted with controlling academic standards and guaranteeing the professional standards of teacher training.

Validation is a procedure whereby the suitability of a course is established in respect of its content, academic standard and teaching resources. A course assessment would occur when a course is proposed. The corporate resources of the collegiate sector would be harnessed to evaluate a course proposal along the lines of the CNAA in Britain. In the process of evaluation, experience would be shared. Another advantage of this process is that the college proposing the course would be required to consider their proposal very carefully, before it is scrutinised by teacher educator colleagues. The process would need to be one of

give and take, allowing for differences, yet ensuring certain standards. Care would have to be taken that no sector is entrenched in deciding solely what is 'desirable'. The problem could exist that a group tries to lay down exclusive standards or criteria. The Collegium would have to monitor this aspect very carefully. However the collegiate proposal is considered vastly superior to the laying down of curricula by bureaucrats, which is widespread in the current structures.

Validation is not a one-off event. The Collegium would continue to monitor academic and professional standards as part of its quality control operation. This would be accomplished *via* peer review and visitation of colleges. An index of the standards and performance in a college would also be derived from an ongoing assessment of the annual reports by the external examiners at that college.

9.13.2.1 **PEER REVIEW**

Whether assessing a lecturer for certification as a teacher educator, a course for validation, or an institution for accreditation, the assessment would be conducted by teacher educators on the basis of criteria derived by teacher educators. This is the essence of peer review.

The process of peer review is not one of management hierarchies however. In rare cases the Collegium may well step in and control a course/institution if the quality of service is unacceptable. In the vast majority of cases the peer review will be professionally accomplished. By this is

meant that there will be partnership in validation, conducted by colleagues who are personally disinterested in the outcome; their only concern will be to assist in the provision of a quality teacher education service. Their responsibility would be to their colleagues and the teacher education profession. The college concerned would have a say in the persons chosen to conduct the assessment. Naturally any person associated with the college concerned, or with a vested interest in the outcome, would be recused from the assessment process.

Historically colleges have suffered from paternalism in the form of politicians, universities and bureaucrats. The collegiate proposals are based on an equality of esteem. It is merely an extension of the external examiner system in that it consists of a peer review rather than a superior review. The basic premise is one of cooperation, rather than competition or destructive control. Peer review would entail a dialoguing process which would promote the maintenance of standards in partnership.

The collegiate validation system would be similar to the CNAA concept in Britain which may be described as:

> "...a nationally organised system of review by peers external to their own college in order to establish course validation, whilst retaining their status as of self governing academic communities" (CNAA brochure).

In the CNAA, the colleges themselves fully participate in establishing standards and achieving academic progress.

The requirements of validators appointed to peer review panels would need to be carefully defined by the collegiate sector in order to avoid sector political appointments and pressures. The persons responsible for accreditation/ validation assessments would be appointed on an *ad hoc* basis and would generally include persons removed from the everyday management and processes of the Collegium. This would ensure that the Collegium does not adopt a *de facto* imperialism over courses and institutions, as variations in such matters should be encouraged where appropriate.

Course assessment criteria would be derived within the collegiate sector, but would include matters such as the course structure, course content, methods of assessment of the course, the adequacy of the college facilities in offering the course and the adequacy and expertise of the staffing complement to offer the course. The CNAA principles for the validation process would have currency for the Collegium as well:

- a respect for institutional integrity, autonomy and independence;

- a concern for documentary evidence and statement;

- a reliance on visitation and discussion;

- a dependence on corporate wisdom; and

- a breadth of concern for the overall works of the institution.

As with the CNAA, visitation of colleges would be involved in the peer review process. Such peer review would incorporate facets such as the standards of courses, as well as the processes of teaching, learning and course assessment.

A committee entrusted with visitation and appraisal would establish the evidence according to generally agreed criteria and guidelines, and recommend any changes as they deem fit. Appeals would be permitted to an appeals committee consisting of persons of courage and integrity outside the collegiate sector. Colleges would be able to present information to this committee. Such an appeals committee would make recommendations to the Minister and the Collegium for their consideration and a review of any decisions made.

9.13.2.2 COLLEGE VISITATION

Institutional accreditation and course validation would entail regular monitoring, plus a periodic review in depth. The aim of college visitation is not to be confrontational, except perhaps in instances of gross mismanagement or criminal occurences, such as the fraudulant use of funds. A college visit would rather be an opportunity to discuss progress and problems. It would be an opportunity for mutual exploration in the interests of the college concerned and the collegiate sector as a whole.

The concern of visitation would be inclusive. Not only would courses be considered *per se*, but the wider and related issue of institutional performance would be assessed. As

value for money implies the optimum use of resources, such as money, facilities and staff, to realise the best quality product, course, and trained teacher possible, these aspects would be considered as well. The outcome of peer review and institutional visitation would be the recognition of an institution as an accredited college of the Collegium.

9.13.2.3 CRITERIA OF QUALITY ASSESSMENT

The selection of appropriate criteria for assessing the quality of lecturers, courses or institutions would need to be drawn up initially, and reviewed from time to time, by the colleges themselves. Every college should have an input of some sort, as every college is deeply implicated in the corporate affairs of the college sector, and the process of deriving a suitable set of criteria is, in itself, part of the quality control process.

To address such issues is to become sensitised to the needs of the sector. This would be valuable when a college needs to articulate the requirements of its own courses for evaluation. Although colleges would be able to tap the corporate wisdom and experience of the corporate sector, colleges would ultimately rely on their own procedures for course development. The twin aims of institutional autonomy and local option would need to be married in a system of debated and shared collegiate values.

9.13.2.4 STANDARDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Standards are a central concern of all institutions of higher education in terms of an assurance that programmes of high quality are being offered. In the collegiate sector the concern would be for national minimum standards, reflected in regional and institutional variations, and higher standards for degreeworthy courses. This common set of standards would be derived cooperatively.

Standards imply a process whereby confidence is established in the processes of judging courses. This cannot be established by an outside body or authority as standardisation is an integral and inclusive process within a sector.

Current structures whereby college syllabuses are imposed on colleges and where examinations are set and marked externally, undermines the whole fabric of standards. The person who lectures a course needs to be integrally involved in the establishment of that course, as well as setting and marking the examining of the course, otherwise the disjunction undermines the very aim it was hoped to accomplish, namely high standards. If a lecturer is not involved in deriving a curriculum, he will not identify fully with the course. If others set and mark the examinations, it undermines the confidence and professionalism of that lecturer. The result is that the standard of the course is subverted. If a lecturer is weak, it doesn't help to take matters out of his hands; rather

that lecturer must remain in charge and must be assisted and developed as a lecturer to reach the required standard of skill and expertise. The collegiate model would accomplish this *par excellence*.

Self evaluation is an important guarantee of academic vitality, especially in a collective process of peer review where lecturers can benefit from contact with one another. No externally imposed notions of performance or purpose can achieve this end. The Robbins Committee (1963) held that colleges should establish and maintain their own standards of competence, without referring to any central authority.

The collegiate model achieves a national system of self referral, with the absolute minimum of externally imposed standards, apart from the needs and requirements arising out of desirable consultation with the various stakeholders. In the process of deriving and meeting these self imposed standards, a natural stimulation for improvement would result. In South African terms, the *Criteria* derived by the Committee of Heads of Education would be superseded by a collegiate process, with proper consultation mechanisms with the Education Departments, teachers, the professional organisations and other interested bodies.

9.13.2.5 CERTIFICATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

Another facet of institutional and course excellence is the calibre of the teaching staff. Teacher educators would develop within the consultation and assessment mechanisms

and structures, which are so central to the collegiate concept. In fact, validation and monitoring processes are a form of staff development.

At another level, the Collegium is charged with developing the staff at the colleges explicitly and proactively. This may be accomplished by offering formal qualifications for teacher educators, by arranging short courses and in-service training and an induction programme for novice teacher educators.

The Collegium would also be involved in negotiations on the formal qualifications and experience, as well as some idea of the personal qualities, required to be appointed as a teacher educator. A Collegium representative may be present when applicants are interviewed for a post. The aim is not to be prescriptive, or to control appointments, but to advise and guide when requested to do so, and to ensure fair play. In this way, political appointments and instances of nepotism would be avoided. It is possible that the college sector may decide to establish a formal system of teacher educator certification or licensure to practice.

Another facet in the optimal utilisation of staff, which would be in the hands of the Collegium, would be the provision of the wherewithal to do a professional job of work. Indices such as a well stocked library, sufficient support staff and other resources that permit a lecturer to function fully, would be the responsibility of the individual college and the Collegium. For example, a course

would not be validated if sufficient teaching resources were not available.

9.13.2.6 PROCESS VERSUS PRODUCT IN ACCREDITATION AND VALIDATION MECHANISMS

In the mechanisms of accreditation and validation, which are central to realising the collegiate model aims, the processes are considered to be as significant and valuable as the final decisions taken. Charges that the validation would tend to be honorific rather than regulatory would not invalidate the collegiate proposals. The external examiner system at universities may be considered honorific by some, but it serves a sound purpose; if it were to fall away, an important mechanism would be lost. The value of the processes of validation and accreditation being proposed is that individual colleges and the collegiate sector will have to critically examine their assumptions and objectives, and this is a worthwhile process in itself. It creates a climate of self appraisal and evaluation. It also informally stresses the responsibility for establishing commonality and consensus on a broad basis.

9.14 INSTITUTIONAL AUTONOMY

The collegiate model is designed around the principle of institutional autonomy within professionally prescribed limits. The limits are set on the basis that there will be control in teacher education, and professional control is preferred to government control. However, the aim of such control is not to be an enforcement of uniformity, nor a

suppression of innovation and local option. In fact the validation processess described above are perceived to be a means of developing professional and institutional self confidence. They allow the colleges to attain their real purpose and character based on a collaborative and critical dialogue. This is the essence of professionalism and the antithesis of values being imposed from outside the collegiate sector, which has bedevilled colleges in South Africa and elsewhere in the world.

What then is envisaged by collegiate institutional autonomy? The colleges in the collegiate system would be expected to develop their own concepts of meaning and standards, to define and interpret their own aims, both at a corporate level and at the level of the individual institution. The intention is to accommodate institutional divergencies, but not inferior standards. The aim is not conformity, but the development of the collegiate sector. It is not intended to stifle imagination and discourage innovation. The collegiate sector would be supportive and offer guidance without being prescriptive, providing that a reasonable service was being provided to the students, and hence to the teaching profession and society. Rather than superficial conformity and consensus, the goal would be one of a shared responsibility and an awareness of the need for development. A powerful sanctioning and mandating mechanism is contraindicated. The need is for the colleges to develop relevant courses, based on perceived or articulated local

needs, which are flexible enough to respond to changing circumstances.

The corporate efforts would in fact enable colleges to develop and experiment within the predetermined limitations of their essential functions, providing scope for institutional initiative. The Weaver Committee (1966) in England felt that colleges should be able to take as many decisions as possible, or at least be party to decisions which affected them, as this would have a significant bearing on the quality of their academic and corporate life. The Collegium would secure the advantages of coordination, while preserving the advantages of liberty. It would balance the freedom to decide and act, within the national needs and the economic use of public resources.

If the college sector is to realise the above aims, it must be organised on a corporate structure basis, and it must be empowered to make final decisions on matters of policy. It must be able to control its own financial and administrative affairs to a significant extent.

While there is a need to build in the greatest degree of autonomy and independence possible, the collegiate structure proposed requires a close working relationship with the government authorities, as well as close contact with the other stakeholders in teacher education. The autonomy envisaged is not exclusive or unilateral in nature. There are, on the other hand, distinct advantages for colleges not having to offer courses controlled by universities and

Education Departments, which have different agendas and different visions of excellence.

9.15 CORPORATENESS IN THE COLLEGIATE SECTOR

In tandem with the idea of institutional autonomy, the collegiate model is built upon a corporate vision. The essence of the collegiate concept is the principle of the collegiate community conferring credentials on its member institutions. Colleges would legitimate each other according to criteria derived by the college sector itself. A consensus of excellence would be established both externally and internally *vis-a-vis* the collegiate sector. Colleges would develop from shared corporate experiences, integrated on a national basis, with strong regional structures.

The advantage of such a national and articulated structure would be felt in establishing course accreditation, addressing issues of student transferability and in articulating pre-service training with in-service training.

9.16 MANAGEMENT AND STANDARDS

In order to ensure sound standards of teacher education, an important index is the calibre of the college leadership and their management skills. This is a related area which should be addressed by the Collegium. There is a need for an ongoing internal review of structures and processes as they impact on the efficacy of the teacher training efforts at the college. Similarly, such matters should be specifically addressed at the time of course validations and course

reviews, and on the occasion of college visitation. Sectorial norms should be derived and the finances should be provided to ensure the optimum management skills.

9.17 FURTHER ADVANTAGES OF THE COLLEGIATE SYSTEM

The Collegium would represent a natural resource for information and intelligence on curriculum development, course design, learning strategies and student assessment. Syllabuses and courses could be published and sent to all the colleges for comment. This form of networking would provide an exchange of ideas and an opportunity to develop the thinking and awareness of the teacher educators.

One of the problems in colleges in South Africa is the disparity of standards. The Collegium would be able to address these differentials, not only in terms of providing corporate expertise and peer assistance when required, but it would have the power and opportunity to address the underlying causes, such as funding and staffing inequalities for example. In a period of rapid change, with colleges at different stages of development, with a differential system of awards, with a variety of curricula and enormous public demands and expectations, the need is great for a coordinated national collegiate system run by experts, with the authority to implement a system of upgrading.

In summary, the Collegium would be able to accomplish the following:

- maintain and enhance the standard of the awards conferred;

- encourage the development of colleges as strong, cohesive and self critical communities;

- allow colleges to carry the maximum possible responsibility for their own academic standards, thereby maintaining and advancing the standards in the collegiate sector;

- ensure that the colleges' internal arrangements for the monitoring and reviewing of courses and academic standards are satisfactory;

- it would have the responsibility for promoting and disseminating good practice in teacher education, as it would be a national centre for the exchange of ideas on the developments in teaching, learning and assessment; to realise these ends it would promote debate and interaction and then collect, collate and disseminate the information;

- it would assist institutions in course validation;

- it would establish and maintain a system of peer review (external examiners); and,

- it would deal with any complaints and appeals by investigating and resolving such matters.

The de Lange Commission isolated a number of specific priorities in teacher education which the Collegium model addresses. Sub-standard existing facilites would be

consciously improved, backlogs would be addressed and minimum national norms would be established for the physical facilities of the colleges. A sufficient number of well educated teachers would be produced, because of the system needs being rationally addressed, and continuing in-service training requirements would be provided for on a national and an individual basis. Academic, professional and experiential requirements for teacher educators would be addressed by the sector and lecturer development would be a priority of the Collegium. Similarly, the evaluation of teacher qualifications would be coordinated at a national level and the certificates awarded would be standardised.

The collegiate model would also meet the centralised national management needs envisaged by Lyons (1970:56). The Collegium, as the national management body, would:

- involve senior staff of the Ministry;

- be competent and empowered to take an overview of all the related aspects of teacher education;

- take an active part in the policy-making and decision-making processes;

- be less likely to be carried away by political expediency;

- be less subject to public criticism as the Collegium would have official and professional status, and a greater authority to counter criticism;

- represent a combination of planning and implementation functions and would wield administrative authority;

- have an enhanced capacity to assess relevant data;

- be democratic in structure and procedure; and

- represent a greater opportunity for consultation, compromise, change, innovation and flexibility.

Race would not feature in the structuring or provision of teacher education. A single Ministry would ensure justice in educational opportunities. Central control would be balanced by decentralisation, with devolved powers and responsibilities, underscored by a shared responsibility, all of which would provide natural checks and balances in the system.

9.18 POTENTIAL PROBLEMS IN REALISING THE COLLEGIATE IDEAL

The collegiate ideal could fail on two grounds and these potential problems need to be kept in mind:

- the Collegium could be co-opted by the government politicians or bureaucrats and fail to realise its professional administration potential; or

- the colleges could fail to work together effectively, with personalities, or college politics, undermining the corporate efforts.

The Collegium should, for these reasons, avoid political, sectional and egocentric issues impeding its administrative potential.

9.19 SUMMARY

The collegiate model has been presented in the light of the previous chapters. Thereafter the model was appraised in relation to issues and perspectives raised in the previous chapters.

10 BIBLIOGRAPHY

BOOKS

Adams, E. (Editor) : In-Service Education and Teachers' Centres, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1975.

Alexander, R.J. et alia (Editors) : Change in Teacher Education : Context and Provision since Robbins, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, London, 1984.

Andrews, Y. : Medical Practitioners and Nursing Professionals as Public Administrators, HAUM, Pretoria, 1982.

Argyris, C. and Schon, D.A. : Theory in Practice : Increasing Professional Effectiveness, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1974.

Ashley, M.J. and Mehl, M.C. (Compilers) : Inset in South Africa : Issues and Directions, Teacher Opportunity Programmes, Johannesburg, 1987.

Atkinson, N.D. : Multi- Cultural Education : A Case Study of Education in Popagano in Bophuthatswana, Institute of Education, Research Division, University of Bophuthatswana, Mafikeng, 1984.

Ball, C. : Fitness for Purpose: Essays in Higher Education, SRHE & NFER-Nelson, Guilford, 1985.

Behr, A.L. and Macmillan, R.G. : Education in South Africa, J.L. van Schaik, Ltd., Pretoria, 1971.

Behr, A.L. : New Perspectives in South African Education A Review of Education in South Africa 1652-1984, Second Edition, Butterworths, Durban, 1984.

Bell, R.E. and Youngson, A.J. (Editors) : Present and Future in Higher Education, Tavistock Publications, London, 1973.

Berdahl, R.O. : British Universities and the State, Cambridge University Press, London, 1959.

Blignaut, S. : Statistics on Education in South Africa, 1968-79, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1981.

Bloom, A. : The Closing of the American Mind : How Higher Education has failed Democracy and Impoverished the Souls of Today's Students, Penguin Books, London, 1987.

Bot, M. : The Blackboard Debate: Hurdles, Options and Opportunities in School Integration, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1990.

Boucher, M. : Spes in Arduis ; A History of the University of South Africa, University of South Africa, Pretoria, 1973.

Braun, E.T.H. : Paradoxes of Education in a Republic, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1979.

Browne, J.D. : Teachers of Teachers. A History of the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, Hodder and Stoughton , London, 1979. (in association with the NATFHE).

Brubacher, J.S. : On the Philosophy of Higher Education, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1977.

Butcher, H.J. and Rudd, E. (Editors) : Contemporary Problems in Higher Education : An Account of Research, Mc Graw Hill, London, 1972.

Carter, C. : Higher Education for the Future, Basil Blackwell, Oxford, 1980.

Chandler, R.C. and Plano, J.C. : The Public Administration Dictionary, Macmillan Publishing Company, New York, 1986.

Chideya, N.T. (Editor) : The Role of the University and its Future in Zimbabwe : International Conference Papers, Harare Publishing House, Harare, 1982.

Clark, B.R. (Editor) : The School and the University : An International Perspective, University of California Press, Berkeley, 1985.

Cloete, J.J.N. : Central, Provincial and Municipal Institutions of South Africa, J.L.van Schaik, Pretoria, 1982.

Cloete, J.J.N. : Introduction to Public Administration, Third Edition, J.L. van Schaik, Pretoria, 1986.

Cloete, J.J.N. : Towns and Cities : Their Government and Administration, J. L. van Schaik (Pty) Ltd., Pretoria, 1986.

Cloete, J.J.N. : Central, Regional and Local Government Institutions of South Africa, (Second Edition), J.L. van Schaik, Pretoria, 1988.

Cloete, J.J.N. (Editor) : South African Public Administration : Selected Readings, J.L. Van Schaik, Pretoria, 1977.

Cloete, J.J.N. : Public Administration and Management, J. L.van Schaik, Pretoria, 1991.

Coetzee, W.A.J. : Public Administration : A South African Introductory Perspective, J. L. van Schaik (Pty) Ltd, Pretoria, 1988.

Conant, J.B. : The Education of American Teachers, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1963.

Cook, T.G. (Editor) : Education and the Professions, Metheun & Co. Ltd., London, 1973.

Coombes, P.A. : The World Crises in Education : The View from the Eighties, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1985.

Cooper, C. et alia, : Race Relations Survey 1984, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1985.

Cooper, C. et alia, : Race Relations Survey 1985, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1986.

Cooper, C. et alia, : Race Relations Survey 1986 Part Two, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1988.

Cooper, C. et alia, : Race Relations Survey 1987-8, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1988.

Cooper, C. et alia, : Race Relations Survey 1988-9, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1989.

Cooper, C. et alia, : Race Relations Survey 1989-90, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1990.

Cooper, C. et alia, : Race Relations Survey 1991-92, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1992.

Cox, C.B. and Boyson, R. (Editors) : Black Paper 1975 : The Fight for Education, J.M. Dent & Sons Ltd., London, 1975.

Crew, M.A. and Young, A. : Paying by Degrees : A Study of the Financing of Higher Education Students by Grants, Loans and Vouchers, The Institute of Economic Affairs, London, 1977.

Crispin, A. : Providing the Teachers, Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1979.

Cropley, A.J. and Dave, R.H. : Lifelong Education and the Training of Teachers : Developing a Curriculum for Teacher Education on the Basis of Lifelong Education, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamberg and Pergammon Press, Oxford, 1978.

Dekker, E. and van Schalkwyk O.J. (Editors) : Modern Education Systems, Butterworths, Durban, 1989.

Dent, H.C. : The Training of Teachers in England and Wales 1800-1975, Hodder & Stoughton, London, 1977.

Derbyshire, J.D. : An Introduction to Public Administration, McGraw Hill Ltd, London, 1979.

de Witt, J.T. : Professional Orientation for the Teaching Profession, Butterworths, Durban, 1981.

Dove, L.A. : Teachers and Teacher Education in Developing Countries : Issues in Planning, Management, and Training, Croom Helm, London, 1986.

Dreijmanis, J. : The Role of the South African Government in Tertiary Education, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1988.

Dubay, T. : Philosophy of the State as Educator, The Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, 1959.

Eells, W.C. : Degrees in Higher Education, The Centre for Applied Research in Education, Washington, D.C., 1963.

Embling, J. : A Fresh Look at Higher Education : European Implications of the Carnegie Commission Reports, Elsevier Scientific Publishing Co., Amsterdam, 1974.

Fletcher, R. : Education in Society : The Promethian Fire: A New Essay in the Sociology of Education, Penguin Books, Middlesex, England, 1984.

Fowler, C. de. K. : School Administration in the Cape Province, with Special Reference to Committee Procedure, Maskew Miller, Cape Town, 1953.

Fowler, G. et alia (Editors) : Decision-making in British Education, Heinemann, London, in association with The Open University Press, 1973.

Fowler, G. : Higher Education, Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1979.

Fox, W., et alia : Public Management, Juta & Company Ltd., Cape Town, 1991.

Frederickson, H.G. : New Public Administration, University of Alabama Press, Alabama, 1980.

Gamson, Z.F. and Associates : Liberating Education, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1984.

Gasset, J.O.Y. : Mission of the University, Routledge and Kagan Paul Ltd., London, 1946.

Gaydon, V. : Race Against the Ratios : The Why and How of Desegregating Teacher Training, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1987.

Getzels,J.W. et alia, : Educatioal Administration as a Social Process : Theory, Research, Practice, Harper and Row, Publishers, New York, 1968.

Gildenhuys, J.S.H. (Editor) : South African Public Administration : Past, Present and Future : Speeches and Papers Delivered at the Winelands Conference Stellenbosch 1987, Owen Burgess Publishers, Pinetown, 1988.

Gimeno, J.B. and Ibanez, R.M. : The Education of Primary and Secondary School Teachers : An International Comparative Study, The Unesco Press, Paris, 1981.

Glatter, R. : An Introduction to the Control of Education in Britain, Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1979.

Goodings, R., et alia, : Changing Priorities in Teacher Education, Croom Helm, Ltd, London, 1982.

Gordon, L. et alia (Compilers) : Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1978, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1979.

Gordon, L. et alia (Compilers) : Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1979, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1980.

Gordon, L. et alia (Compilers) : Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1980, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1981.

Guiton, J. : From Equivalence of Degrees to Evaluation of Competence : Present Procedures and Practices : New Avenues, Unesco, Paris, 1977.

Hanekom, S.X. and Thornhill, C. : Public Administration in Contemporary Society. A South African Perspective, Macmillan South Africa (Publishers) (Pty) Ltd, Johannesburg, 1983.

Hanekom, S.X. and Thornhill, C. : The Functions of the Public Administrator, Butterworths, Durban, 1986.

Hanekom, S.X. et alia (Editors) : Key Aspects of Public Administration, Macmillan South Africa (Publishers) (Pty) Ltd, Johannesburg, 1986.

Hanekom, S.X. : Public Policy : Framework and Instrument for Action, Macmillan South Africa (Publishers) (Pty) Ltd, Johannesburg, 1987.

Harman, G.S. and Smith, C.S. (Editors) : Readings in the Economics and Politics of Australian Education, Pergamon Press, Rushcutters Bay, 1976.

Harris, S.E. (Editor) : Education and Public Policy, Mc Cutchan Publishing Corporation, Berkeley, 1965.

Hartman, R.W. : Credit for College : Public Policy for Student Loans, A Report for The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1971.

Harvighurst, R.J. and Neugarten, B.L. : Society and Education, Third Edition, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston, 1967.

Hattingh, J.J. : Governmental Relations : An Introduction University of South Africa, Pretoria, 1986.

Hencke, D. : Colleges in Crisis : The Reorganisation of Teacher Training 1971-1977, Penguin Books, 1978.

Hewett, S. (Editor) : The Training of Teachers. A Factual Survey, University of London Press Ltd, London, 1971.

Hills, W.G. (Editor) : Conducting the People's Business : The Framework and Functions of Public Administration, University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, 1973.

Hinchliffe, K. : Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Croom Helm, London, 1987.

Hodgkinson, C. : Towards a Philosophy of Administration, Basil Blackwell, Oxford, 1982.

Holdstock, L. : Education for a New Nation, Africa Transpersonal Association, Riverclub, 1987.

Holmes, B. and Scanlan, D. (Editors) : Higher Education in a Changing World. The World Yearbook of Education 1971-1972, Evan Brothers Limited London, 1971.

Hopkins, D. and Reid, K. (Editors) : Rethinking Teacher Education, Croom Helm, London, 1985.

Horrell, M. : Bantu Education to 1968, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1968.

Horrell, M. : The Education of The Coloured Community in South Africa 1652-1970, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1970.

Horrell, M. (Compiler) : Laws Affecting Race Relations in South Africa (To the end of 1976), South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1978.

Horrell, M. (Compiler) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1964, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1965.

Horrell, M. (Compiler) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1965, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1966.

Horrell, M. (Compiler) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1966, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1967.

Horrell, M. (Compiler) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1967, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1968.

Horrell, M. (Compiler) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1970, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1971.

Horrell, M. et alia (Compilers) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1971, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1972.

Horrell, M. et alia (Compilers) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1972, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1973.

Horrell, M. et alia (Compilers) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1973, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1974.

Horrell, M. et alia (Compilers) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1976, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1977.

Horrell, M. (Editor) : A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa 1981, South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1982.

Houle, C.O. : Continuing Learning in the Professions, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1981.

Hoyle, E. and Megarry, J. (Editors) : World Yearbook of Education 1980 : Professional Development of Teachers, Kogan Page Limited, London, 1980.

Hughes, E.C. et alia : Education for the Professions of Medicine, Law, Theology and Social Welfare : A Report Prepared for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1973.

Hummel, C. : Education Today for the World Tomorrow, Internationa Bureau of Education, Unesco, Paris, 1977.

Hunter, S.L. : The Scottish Educational System, (Second Edition), Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1971.

Ikenberry, O.S. : American Educational Foundations : An Introduction, Charles E Merrill Publishing Company, Columbus, Ohio, 1974.

Izbicki, J. : Education A-Z, Collins, London, 1978.

Jacobs, M. : A Statistical Overview of Education in KwaZulu Natal, The Education Foundation, Durban, 1990.

Jacques, D. & Richardson, J. : The Future for Higher Education: Proceedings of the 19th Annual Conference of the Society for Research into Higher Education 1983, SRHE & NFER-Nelson, Guilford, 1985.

Jarvis, P. : Professional Education, Croom Helm, London, 1983.

Kandal, I.L. : American Education in the Twentieth Century, Harvard University Press, Cambridge Massachusetts, 1957.

Kallaway, P. (Editor) : Apartheid and Education : The Education of Black South Africans, Published in Association with the Education Policy Unit and Centre for African Studies (University of Cape Town), Ravan Press, Johannesburg, 1984.

Kayson, C. : The Higher Learning : The Universities and the Public, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1969.

Kayson, C. (Editor) : Content and Context: Essays on College Education: A Report Prepared for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1973.

Kerr, C. : The Uses of the University : With a Postscript 1972, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1963 and 1972.

Kogan, M. and Packwood, T. : Advisory Councils and Committees in Education, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1974.

Kotze, D.A. (Editor) : Development Policies and Approaches in Southern Africa, Academia, Cape Town, 1983.

Lane, M. : Design for Degrees. New Courses under the C.N.A.A. 1964-1974, The Macmillan Press Ltd, London, 1975.

Larson, M.S. : The Rise of Professionalism : A Sociological Analysis, University of California Press, Berkeley, 1977.

Leavis, F.R. : Education and the University : A Sketch for an English School, Second Edition, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1943.

Le Roux, A.L. (Editor) : CORDTEK: A Strategy for Change Papers Delivered at Annual Conferences held by CORDTEK in 1988 and 1989, CORDTEK, 1990.

Lewis, R. and Maude, A. : Professional People, Phoenix House, London, 1952.

Lomax, D.E. (Editor) : European Perspectives in Teacher Education, John Wiley and Sons, London, 1976.

Lomax, D.E. (Editor) : The Education of Teachers in Britain, John Wiley & Sons, London, 1973.

Lynch, J. : The Reform of Teacher Education in the United Kingdom, Society for Research into Higher Education, Guildford, Surry, 1979.

Lynch, J. and Plunkett, H.D. : Teacher Education and Cultural Change. England, France, West Germany, George Allen & Unwin Ltd, London, 1973.

Lyons, R. (Organiser): Administrative Aspects of Educational Planning : Contributions to a Seminar held at the International Institute for Educational Planning, 23 June - 4 July 1969, Unesco : International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, 1970.

Maclure, J.S. : Educational Documents : England and Wales 1816 to the present day, Methuen & Co. Ltd., London, 1979.

Malherbe, E.G. : Education in South Africa, (Volumes I and II), Juta & Co., Ltd., Cape Town, 1977.

Mallinson, V. : The Western European Idea in Education Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1980.

Macquarrie, J. (Editor) : A Dictionary of Christian Ethics, SCM Press Ltd, London, 1967.

Massialus, B.G. : Education and the Political System, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Massachusetts, 1969.

Marais, H.C. (Editor) : South Africa : Perspectives on the Future, Owen Burgess Publishers, Pinetown, 1988.

McGregor, R. & A. (Editors) : McGregor's Educational Alternatives, Juta, Cape Town, 1992.

Mc Nay, I. and Mc Cormack, R. : The CNAA, Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1982.

Mood, A.M. : The Future of Higher Education : Some Speculations and Suggestions : A Report for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1973.

Moodie, G.C. (Editor) : Standards and Criteria in Higher Education, The Society for Research into Higher Education and NFER-Nelson, Guildford, 1986.

Morris, A. and Sizer, J. (Editors) : Resources and Higher Education, Society for Research into Higher Education, Guildford, Surrey, 1982. (Leverhulme Trust).

Mungazi, D.A. : To Honor the Sacred Trust of Civilization: History, Politics, and Education in Southern Africa, Schenkman Publishing Company, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1983.

Murray Thomas, R. (Editor) : Politics and Education : Cases from Eleven Nations, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1983.

Nasson, B. and Samuel, J. (Editors) : Education: From Poverty to Liberty : Report for the Second Carnegie Inquiry into Poverty and Development in Southern Africa, David Philip, Cape Town, 1990.

Newitt, J. (Editor) : Future Trends in Education Policy, Lexington Books, Massachusetts, 1979.

Niblett, W.R. (Editor) : Higher Education : Demand and Response, Tavistock Publications, London, 1969.

Niblett, W.R. : Universities Between Two Worlds, University of London Press Ltd., London, 1974.

Niblett, W.R. et alia (Editors) : Universities Facing the Future : The World Yearbook of Education 1972-1973, Evans Brothers Limited, London, 1972.

Ngubentombi, S.V.S. : Education in the Republic of Transkei : Some Origins, Issues, Trends and Challenges, Academia, Pretoria, 1989.

Oosthuizen, G.C. et alia (Editors) : Challenge to a South African University : The University of Durban-Westville, Oxford University Press, Cape Town, 1981.

Oxtoby, R. : Higher Education at the Crossroads : Research into Higher Education 1965 - 1995: Papers Presented at the 16th Annual Conference of the Society for Research into Higher Education, Society for Research into Higher Education, Guildford, Surrey, 1980.

Perkin, H. : Key Profession : The History of University Teachers, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1969.

Phenix, P.H. : Realms of meaning: A philosophy of the curriculum for general education, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1964.

Phillipson, N. (Editor) : Universities, Society and the Future : A Conference held on the 400th Anniversary of the University of Edinburgh, 1983, Edinburgh University Press, 1983.

Perkins, J.A. : The University in Transition, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1966.

Perry, W.: Open university : A Personal Account by the First Vice-Chancellor, The Open University, Milton Keyns, 1976.

Polley, J.A. (Editor) : The Freedom Charter and the Future: Proceedings of the National Conference on *The Freedom Charter and the Future - a Critical Appraisal*, Organised and Presented by the Institute for a Democratic Alternative for SA in Cape Town on 15-16 July 1988 , The Institute for a Democratic Alternative for South Africa, Cape Town, 1989.

Popkewitz, T.S. (Editor) : Critical Studies in Teacher Education : Its Folklore, Theory and Practice, The Falmer Press, London, 1987.

Psacharopoulos, G. : Higher Education in Developing Countries : A Cost Benefit Analysis, World Bank (Staff Working Paper No. 440), Washington, 1980.

Psacharopoulos, G. (Editor) : Economics of Education : Research and Studies, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1987.

Robbins, Lord. : The University in the Modern World and Other Papers on Higher Education, Macmillan, London, 1966.

Robbins, S.P. : The Administrative Process, Second Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Engelwood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1988.

Roizen, J. and Jepson, M. : Degrees for Jobs : Employer Expectations of Higher Education, The Society for Research into Higher Education and NFER-Nelson, Guildford, 1985.

Rose, B. and Tunmer, R. (Editors) : Documents in South African Education, A. D. Donker Publisher, Johannesburg, 1975.

Ross, M.G. : The University : The Anatomy of Academe, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1976.

Rudd, E. : The Highest Education : A Study of Graduate Education in Britain, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1975.

Ruperti, R.M. : The Education System in Southern Africa, J.L. van Schaik (Pty) Ltd, Pretoria, 1979.

Salmon, C.M.R. and Woods, C.A. : Colleges of Education Challenging the Cliche, Education Research Unit, University of Natal, 1992.

Saran, R. : The Politics of Educational Policy-making: Pressures on Central and Local Government, Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1979.

Saunders, C. (Editor) : Illustrated History of Southern Africa, Readers Digest Association of S.A., (Pty) Ltd., Cape Town, 1988.

Schrire, R. (Editor) : Critical Choices for South Africa: An Agenda for the 1990s, Oxford University Press, Cape Town, 1990.

Scott, P. : The Crisis of the University, Croom Helm Ltd, London, 1984.

Shattock, M. (Editor) : The Structure and Governance of Higher Education, Society for Research into Higher Education, Guildford, Surrey, 1983. (Leverhulme Trust).

Shein, E.H. : Professional Education : Some New Directions, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1972. (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education).

Simmons, J. (Editor) : The Education Dilemma : Policy Issues for Developing Countries in the 1980's, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1980. (The World Bank).

South African Research Service, : South African Review 1: Same foundations, new facades?, Raven Press, Johannesburg, 1983.

Stephens, M.D. and Roderick, G.W. (Editors) : Higher Education Alternatives, Longman, London, 1978.

Stinnett, T.M. : The Profession of Teaching, The Centre for Applied Research in Education, Inc., New York, 1962.

Thomas, L.G. et alia : Perspective on Teaching : An Introduction to Public Education, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Engelwood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1961.

Thompson, A.R. : Education and Development in Africa : An Introduction to the Study of the Role Education may play in National Development Intended Primarily for Teachers in Training and Service, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London, 1981.

Tibble, J.W. (Editor) : The Future of Teacher Education, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1971.

Turner, J.D. and Rushton, J. : Education for the Professions, Manchester University Press, Manchester, 1976.

Unesco, : Methods of Establishing Equivalences Between Degrees and Diplomas, Prepared by the International Association of Universities, Unesco, Paris, 1970.

Unterhalter, E. et alia (Editors) : Apartheid Education and Popular Struggles, Ravan Press, Johannesburg, 1991.

Unterhalter, E. et alia (Editors) : Education in a Future South Africa: Policy Issues for Transformation, Heinemann, 1991.

Urwin, D. (Editor) : Fitness for Purpose : Essays in Higher Education by Christopher Ball, SRHE & NFER-Nelson, Guildford, 1985.

Vaizey, J. : The Control of Education, Faber and Faber, London, 1963.

v.d. Merwe, H.V. and Welsh, D. (Editors) : The Future of the University in South Africa, David Philip (in association with the Centre for Intergroup Studies), Cape Town, 1977.

van Schalkwyk, O.J. : The Education System : Theory and Practice, Educo Publishers, Alkantrant, 1986.

van Vuuren, D.J. et alia (Editors) : Change in South Africa, Butterworths, Durban, 1983.

van Vuuren, D.J. et alia (Editors) : South Africa : A Plural Society in Transition, Butterworths, Durban, 1985.

van Vuuren, D.J. et alia (Editors) : South Africa : The Challenge of Reform, Owen Burgess Publishers, Pinetown, 1988.

van Wyk, J.G. : The Law of Education for the Teacher, Academia, Pretoria, 1983.

Venter, I.S.J. and Verster, T.L. Educational Themes in Time Perspective : Part Three, University of South Africa, Pretoria, 1986.

Vos, A.J. and Brits, V.M. : Comparative and International Education for Student Teachers Second Edition, Butterworths, Durban, 1987.

Walford, G. : Restructuring Universities : Politics and Power in the Management of Change, Croom Helm, London, 1987.

Wandira, A. : The African University in Development Ravan Press, Johannesburg, 1977.

Westoby, A. : Finance for Education, Open University Press, Milton Keynes, 1979.

Wiechers, M. : Administrative Law, Butterworths, Durban, 1985.

Willey, F.T. and Maddison, R.E. : An Enquiry into Teacher Training, University of London Press Ltd, 1971.

Williams, G. and Blackstone, T. : Response to Adversity : Higher Education in a Harsh Climate, Society for Research into Higher Education, Guilaford, Surrey, 1983.

Woodhall, M. : Student Loans : A Review of Experience in Scandinavia and Elsewhere, The University of London Institute of Education, George C. Harrap & Co. Ltd., London, 1970.

Woodhall, M. : Student Loans as a Means of Financing Higher Education : Lessons from International Experience, World Bank Staff Working Papers Number 599, The World Bank, Washington, 1983.

Woodley, A. : Implementation of Higher Education Reforms : The Open University of the United Kingdom, European Cultural Foundation Institute of Education, Amsterdam, 1981.

Worrall, D. (Editor) : South Africa : Government and Politics, (Second Edition), J.L. van Schaik, Pretoria, 1975.

JOURNALS AND PERIODICALS

Adelman, C. : "Teacher Education in England Wales : The Past 20 Years:, European Journal of Education, Volume 21, Number 2, 1986.

Alexander, R. : "What is a Course? : Curriculum Models and CNAA Validation", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Volume 3, Number 1, Spring 1979.

Altbach, O.G. : "Teaching : International Concerns", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Anderson, D.G. : "Differentiation of the Ed.D. and Ph.D. in Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 3, May/June 1983.

Andrew, M.G. : "Tertiary Education in a New South Africa : A Case for the Adult Learner", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 2, Number 2, 1988.

Andrews, L.O. : "State and Federal Aid for Student Teaching - Now?", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XV, Number 2, June 1964.

Anonymous, : "Education Authorities and Teaching Profession", SATC Bulletin, Number 11, June 1982.

Anonymous, : "Suspicion if teachers not involved in planning", SATC Bulletin, Number 24, September 1985.

Anonymous, : "Profession looks at intergroup relations", SATC Bulletin, Number 25, December 1985.

Anonymous, : "Teachers' Federal Council established", SATC Bulletin, Number 28, September 1986.

Anonymous, : "Draft aims of Teachers'Federal Council", SATC Bulletin, Number 28, September 1986.

Anonymous, : "Minister now controls education", SATC Bulletin, Number 28, September 1986.

Anonymous, : "Natal Education Council", NTS News, Number 5, September 1987.

Anonymous, : "A new plan for Higher Education", The Year at UDW, 1987.

Apple, M.W. : "Politicizing "Civic Values" in Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Apple, M.W. : "Will the Social Context Allow a Tomorrow for *Tomorrow's Teachers*?", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Atkinson, G.B.J. : "Student Loans", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Volume 7, Number 1, Spring 1983.

Axelrod, J. : "Depth Versus Breadth in the Preparation of College Teachers", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XIII, Number 3, September 1962.

Azad, J.L. : "Financing Institutions of Higher Education in India : The Need for a Realistic Fee Policy", Higher Education, Volume 5, 1976.

Baldwin, E.E. : "Theory vs.Ideology in the Practice of Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, January/February 1987.

Barnett, R.A. : "Higher Education : Ligitimation Crisis", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 10, Number 3, 1985.

Barnett, R.A. et alia : "Models of Professional Preparation : Pharmacy, Nursing and Teacher Education", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 12, Number 1, 1987.

Barnett, R.A. : "Institutions of Higher Education : Purposes and 'Performance Indicators'", Oxford Review of Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Barrett, T. : "Validating College Courses", Journal of Education, Volume 12, July 1980.

Beckmann, J.L. : "White Paper on Education : Acceptance, rejection, resolutions", SATC Bulletin, Number 18, March 1984.

Behr, A.L. : "The Role of the Universities in Education for the Professions", Bulletin for Academic Staff, Faculty of Education, University of Durban-Westville, Volume 6, Number 3, 1985.

Behr, A.L. : "Teaching at University : Synopsis of the Viewpoints of Recent Commissions of Inquiry into Higher Education", Bulletin for Academic Staff, University of Durban-Westville, Volume 4, Number 1, 1983.

Behr, A.L. : "The Jarratt Report (A Critique on the Management and Appraisal of Universities) : An Evaluation of its Findings", Bulletin for Academic Staff, Faculty of Education, University of Durban-Westville, Volume 8, Number 2, 1987.

Behr, A.L. : "South African Universities Today : Perceptions for a Changing Society", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 1, Number 1, 1987.

Berdahl, R.O. and Shattock, M.L. : "Editorial", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Bergenhenegouwen, G. : "Hidden Curriculum in the University", Higher Education, Volume 16, 1987.

Bernier, N.R. and McClelland, A.E. : "Foundations of Education : Towards a Generative Model", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 3, May/June 1982.

Beyer, L.E. and Zeichner, K.M. : "Teacher Training and Educational Foundations : A Plea for Discontent", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 3, May/June 1982.

Beyer, L.E. : "Beyond Elitism and Technicism : Teacher Education as Practical Philosophy", Journal of Teacher Education, March/April 1986.

Bibby, C. : "In Defence of Colleges of Education", British Journal of Teacher Education, Volume 1, Number 1, January 1975.

Booth, C. : "Central Government and Higher Education Planning 1965-1986", Higher Education Quarterly, Volume 41, Number 1, January 1987.

Borrowman, M. : "Reactions to *Tomorrow's Teachers*", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Bray, M. : "Student Loans for Higher Education : The Hong Kong Experience in International Perspective", Higher Education, Volume 15, 1986.

Brennan, J. : "Preparing Students for Employment", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 10, Number 2, 1985.

Broudy, H.S. : "Criteria for the Professional Education of Teachers", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XVI, December 1965.

Brody, H. : "The Education of Teachers of Teachers", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XIII, Number 3, September 1962.,

Brown, G.I. : "A Diplomate Program for the Professor of Education", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XIII, Number 3, September 1962.

Bruton, M.J. : "University Planning and Management in Conditions of Complexity and Uncertainty", Higher Education Quarterly, Volume 41, Number 4, Autumn 1987.

Burnett, J.R. : "The Revival of Civic Learning : A Response to R. Freeman Butts", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Burstyn, J.N. : "The Civic Purpose of Education: Process and Product", Journal of Teacher Education Volume XXXIV, number 6, November/December 1983.

Butts, R.F. : "Teacher Education and the Revival of Civic Learning : A Reprise of Yesteryear's Theme", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Cadenhead, K. : "Is Substantive Change in Teacher Education Possible?", Journal of Teacher Education, July/August 1985.

Cadwallader, M.L. : "Education for Public Virtue", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Carling, A. : "What a University is not", Culture, Education and Society, Volume 39, Number 4, Autumn 1985.

Carswell, J. : "What Robbins Took for Granted", Oxford Review of Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Carter, R. : "A Taxonomy of Objectives for Professional Education", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 10, Number 2, 1985.

Case, W.C. et alia : "The Holmes Group Report : Impetus for Gaining Professional Status for Teachers", Journal of Teacher Education, July/August 1986.

Church, C.H. : "The Qualities of Validation", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 13, Number 1, 1988.

Clarke, A.M. and Birt, L.M. : "Evaluative Reviews in Universities : The Influence of Public Policies", Higher Education, Volume 11, 1982.

Clayton, A.S. : "Professionalisation and Problems of Power", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XVI, March, 1965.

Cohen, B. : "Skills, Professional Education and the Disabling University", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 10, Number 2, 1985.

Combs,A.W. : "Some Basic Concepts for Teacher Education", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXIII, Number 3, Fall 1972.

Conley, S.C. and Bacharach, S.B. : "The Holmes Group Report : Standards, Hierarchies and Management, Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Cortis, G.A. : "The James Report : Attitudes of Senior Staffs in the Colleges", Higher Education Review, Volume 4, Number 3, Summer 1972.

Cottrell, D.P. : "NCATE Criteria and Procedures : An Analysis of Some Issues and Problems", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XV, Number 2, June 1964.

Cowan, J. : "Effectiveness and Efficiency in Higher Education", Higher Education, Volume 14, 1985.

Cowper, H. : "Government Attitudes Towards Teacher Training in Scotland", European Journal of Education, Volume 21, Number 2, 1986.

Cuban, L. : "The Holmes Group Report : Why Reach Exceeds Grasp", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Cuthbert, R.E. : "Quality and Management in Higher Education, Studies in Higher Education, Volume 13, Number 1, 1988.

Davies, E.H. : "So you think you're professional do you?" Education Journal, Volume 88 Number 1 April 1978.

Dahlgren, L.O. and Pramling, I. : "Conceptions of Knowledge, Professionalism and Contemporary Problems in Some Professional Academic Subcultures", Studies in Higher Education Volume 10, Number 2, 1985.

Darling-Hammond, L. : "Schools for Tomorrow's Teachers", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Denemark, G.W. : "Challenging Traditional Views of Teaching and Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume 28, Number 2, March/April 1977.

Denemark, G. : "Educating a Profession", Journal of Teacher Education, September/October 1985.

De Silva, K.M. : "A University Grants Commission in a South Asian Setting : The Sri Lankan Experience", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Dollery, B. : "Financing University Education in South Africa : The Case for a Student Loan Scheme", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 1, Number 1, 1987.

Donald, J.G. : "Knowledge and the University Curriculum", Higher Education, Volume 15, 1986.

Dreeben, R. : "Comment on *Tomorrow's Teachers*", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Ducharme, E.R. and Nash, R.J. : "Humanizing Teacher Education for the Last Quarter of the Twentieth Century", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume 26, Number 3, Fall 1975.

Ducharme, E.R. and Agne, R.M. : "The Education Professiorate : A Research Based Perspective, Journal of Teacher Education, Volume 33, Number 6, November/December 1982.

Ducharme, E.R. : "Establishing the Place of Teacher Education in the University", Journal of Teacher Education, July/August 1985.

Ducharme, E. : "Liberal Arts in Teacher Education : The Perennial Challenge", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume 31, Number 3, May/June 1980.

Dunn, W.R and Hamilton, D.D. : "Competency-based Education and Distance Learning : A Tandem for Professional Continuing Education?", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 10, Number 3, 1985.

du Plessis, P.G. : "University Training in the Dynamic South African Environment with Special Reference to the Presentation of Business Economics", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 1, Number 1, 1987.

Eheazu, B.A. : "Criteria for Decisions in Economic Aspects of Educational Planning", Education for Development : Journal of the Faculty of Education, University College, Cardiff, Volume 9, Number 1, Spring 1985.

Eisemon, T.O. : "Reconciling University Autonomy with Public Accountability : The State, University Grants Committee and Higher Education in New Zealand", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Engel, D.W. : "The University and Politics", Journal of the University of Durban-Westville, Volume 4, Number 2.

Erant, M. : "Knowledge Creation and Knowledge Use in Professional Contexts", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 10, Number 2, 1985.

Erekson, T.L. and Barr, L. : "Alternative Credentialling: Lessons form Vocational Education", Journal of Teacher Education, May/June, 1985.

Eustace, R. : "The Export of the UGC Idea to Africa", Higher Education, 13, 1984.

Eustace, R. : "The English Ideal of University Governance : A Missing Rationale and Some Implications", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 12, Number 1, 1987.

Eustace, R. : "The Criteria of Staff Selection : Do they Exist?", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 13, Number 1, 1988.

Feinberg, W. : "The Holmes Group Report and the Professionalization of Teaching", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Ferguson, J. : "Values in Higher Education", Culture, Education & Society, Volume 40, Number 1, Winter 1986.

Ferguson, P. : "Teacher Education in Japan : An Historical and Comparative Perpective", Journal of Teacher Education, September/October 1985.

Finkelstein, B. : "Technicians, Mandarins, and Witnesses : Searching for Professional Understanding", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 3, May/June 1983.

Fowler, G. : "The Government's Green Paper : A Myriad Woes", Culture, Education & Society, Volume 39, Number 4, Autumn 1985.

Fox, A.C. : "The Criteria of a Profession : An Explanation", The Australian Journal of Higher Education, Volume 3, Number 2, December, 1968.

Freeman, L.D. : "The Management of Liberal Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXI, Number 3, May-June 1980.

Fry, G.W. : "Degreeism : Disease or Cure?", Higher Education, Volume 10, 1981.

Futrell, M.H. : "The Holme's Group Report : A Teachers Perspective", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Gallegos, A.M. : "A Call for Universal Accreditation", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXIX, Number 1, January/February 1978.

Gevers, W. : "Comment on an Article by Dr B.E. Dollery Concerning a Loan Scheme System for Tertiary Education", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 2, Number 1, 1988.

Giarelli, J.M. : "The Public, The State, and the Civic Education of Teachers", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Gideonse, H.D. : "Teacher Education's Contribution to the University", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 2, March/April 1982.

Gilbert, C.B. : "Professionalism and the Status of the Teacher", Education Journal, Volume 90, Number 2, September 1980.

Goldhammer, K. : "Premises and Context of Collegiate-Based Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXVII, Number 6, November/December 1977.

Gore, J. : "Collegial Ambience : Its Necessity in Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXII, Number 3, May/June 1981.

Gore, J. : "Liberal and Professional Education : Keep Them Separate", Journal of Teacher Education, January/February 1987.

Griffiths, R.C. : "Hong Kong University and Polytechnic Grants Committee", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Grobbler, A. : "What is a Trade Union?", Manpower 2000 Information Series Number 19.

Haberman, M. : "Twenty-Three Reasons Universities Can't Educate Teachers", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXII, Number 2, Summer 1971.

Harland, J. and Gibbs, I. : "Old Wine New Bottles : Policy Options for the Former Colleges of Education", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Volume 11, Number 2, Summer 1987.

Harman, g. : "Australian Experience with Co-ordinating Agencies for Tertiary Education", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Harrison, D. : "The Government's Green Paper : Universities : 'Excellent, Fit for the Purpose, and Cost Effective'?", Culture, Education & Society, Volume 39, Number 4, Autumn 1985.

Hawk, P.P. et alia, : "Certification : It Does Matter", Journal of Teacher Education, May/June 1985.

Hayward, F.J.D. : "The Study of Educational Administration", Journal of Education, Department of Education, University of Natal, Volume 1, Number 1, July 1969.

Hayward, F.J.D. : "Bureaucracy and Educational Administration", Journal of Education, Department of Education, University of Natal, Volume 4, Number 1, July 1982.

Herson, L.J.R. : "Helmsman, Bridge, and Cycle : The Liberal Arts Considered", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXI, Number 3, May/June 1980.

Hopkins, D. and Reid, K. : "Master's Degree in Education", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Volume 8, Number 1, Spring 1984.

Howsam, R.B. : "The Future of Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 4, July/August 1982.

Hunt, E.M. : "An E.D for College Teachers", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XIII, Number 3, September 1962.

Husen, T. : "Problems of Securing Equal Access to Higher Education : The Dilemma Between Equality and Excellence", Higher Education, Volume 5, 1976.

Imrie, B.W. : "Freedom and Control in Higher Education : Who Needs a Policy?", Higher Education, Volume 1, 1981.

Inglis, W.B. : "The General Teaching Council for Scotland", British Journal of Education Studies, Volume XVIII, February 1970.

Jackson, P.W. : "Facing Our Ignorance", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Jarrett, J.L. : "Teacher Education as a Liberal Art", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXX, Number 6, November/December 1979.

Joyce, B. : "Reflections on *Tomorrow's Teachers*", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Judge, H. : "Another View from Abroad", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Katz, L.G. and Raths, J.D. : "A Framework for Research on Teacher Education Programs", Journal of Teacher Education, November/December 1985.

Kimball, B.A. : "Founders of 'Liberal Education' : The Case for Roman Orators against Socratic Philosophers", Teachers College Record, Volume 85, Number 2, Winter 1983.

Kimball, B.A. : "Liberal versus Useful Education : Reconsidering the Contrast and its Lineage", Teachers College Record, Volume 87, Number 4, Summer 1986.

King, E.A. : "Can Professional Education Survive in the Traditional Liberal Arts Colleges?", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XX, Number 1, Spring 1969.

King, J.A. : "The Uneasy Relationship Between Teacher Education and the Liberal Arts and Sciences", Journal of Teacher Education, January/February 1987.

Knight, P.C. : "The National Advisory Body Planning Exercise 1987-88 : A Shot in the Foot", Higher Education Quarterly, Volume 41, Number 4, Autumn 1985.

Lemmer, J. : "Teachers' Organisations, Training and Discipline - report of an overseas investigation", SATC Bulletin, Number 3, May 1980.

Lemmer, J. : "Teachers' Organisations, Training and Discipline - report on an overseas investigation - part two", SATC Bulletin, Number 4, August 1980.

le Roux, A.L. : "The Promotion of Professionalism", SATC Bulletin, Number 8, August 1981.

le Roux, A.L. : "Edgewood College of Education University of Natal Co-operation : A Milestone in Teaching Training in South Africa", Journal of Education, Volume 17, November 1985.

le Roux, A.L. : "Colleges of Education in a Changing Era", South African Journal of Education, Volume 3, Number 1, 1983.

Lieberman, A. : "Teacher Leadership", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Lucas, C.J. : "Prospects for the Revival of Civic Learning", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

McConnell, T.R. and Fry, M.A. : "Flexibility or Rigidity: University Attitudes Towards the James Report", Higher Education Review, Volume 4, Number 3, Summer 1972.

McGrath, E.J. : "The Preparation of College Teachers : Some Basic Considerations", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XIII, Number 3, September 1962.

McGuckin, J.A. : "CATE and the Re-shaping of Initial Teacher Training : the Publications of its First Year 85-6", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Volume 11, Number 1, Spring 1987.

Mc Kelvie, B.D. : "The University's Statement of Goals : An Idea Whose Time has Arrived", Higher Education, Volume 15, 1986.

McKenzie, J. et alia, : "Independent Study and Professional Education", Studies in Higher Education , Volume 10, Number 2, 1985.

Markus, T.A. : "Universities and the Market", Culture, Education & Society, Volume 39, Number 1, Winter 1984/85.

Martin, J.R. : "Reforming Teacher Education : Rethinking Liberal Education", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Marwick, B. : "The Inauguration of the Natal Education Council", Neon, Natal Education Department, Volume 53, February 1988.

Mertens, S.K. and Yarger, S.J. : "Escape from Deja Vu : On Strengthening Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 4, July/August 1982.

Miller, A.H. : "The Evaluation of University Courses", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 9, Number 1, 1984.

Millett, J.D. : "Graduate Education : A Reappraisal", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XIII, Number 3, September 1962.

Mingat, A. and Tan, J-P. : "Financing Public Higher Education in Developing Countries : The Potential Role of Loan Schemes", Higher Education, Volume 15, 1986.

Moodie, G.C. : "Le Roi est Mort : Vive le Quoi? : Croham and the Death of the UGC:, Higher Education Quarterly, Volume 41, Number 4, Autumn 1987.

Moodie, G.C. : "The Debates About Higher Education Quality in Britain and the USA", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 13, Number 1, 1988.

Moser, C. : "The Robbins Report 25 Years After : and the Future of the Universities", Oxford Review of Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Mosha, H.J. : "The Role of AFrican Universities in National Developments : A Critical Analysis", Higher Education, Volume 15, 1986.

Murphy, P.L. : "The Obligations of American Citizenship : A Historical Perspective", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Nash, R.J. and Agne, R.M. : "Beyond Marginality : A New Role for Foundations of Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 3, May/June 1982.

Nash, R.J. and Ducharme, E.R : "Where Their is no Vision the People Perish : A Nation at Risk", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 4, July/August 1983.

Neave, G. : "From a Far-flung Field : Some Considerations of Robbins from a European Perpective", Oxford Review of Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Nel, B.F. : "The South African University in the 1980's : An Identity Crisis", Journal of the University of Durban-Westville, Volume 4, Number 2, 1983.

Nell, W.L. : "Teacher Education in a Changing Context", SATC Bulletin, Number 17, December 1983.

Niblett, W.R. : "The Place of Teacher Education in the Structure of Higher Education", London Educational Review, Volume 1, Number 1, Spring 1972.

Niven, J.M. : "Current Trends in the Control of Teacher Education in South Africa", Journal of Education, Department of Education, University of Natal, Volume 1, Number 1, July 1969.

Niven, J : "Educational Planning and the Supply of Teachers in a Diverse Society with Reference to South Africa", Journal of Education, University of Natal, Volume 10, 1978.

Niven, J.M. : "The Importance of Education in a Developing Society", Journal of Education, Department of Education, University of Natal, Volume 4, Number 1, July 1972.

Nokes, A.G. : "Bachelor of Education : An Introductory Note", Education for Teaching, Number 84, Spring 1971.

Nolan, J.F. : "Potential Obstacles to Internal Reform in Teacher Education : Findings from a Case Study", Journal of Teacher Education, July/August 1985.

Ntshoe, I.M. : "Equity and Efficiency in Post-compulsory Education : Limits and Possibilities in South Africa", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 1, Number 1, 1987.

Palmer, J. : "Who Should Define the Meaning of Citizenship?", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Peters, R.S. : "The Role and Responsibilities of the University in Teacher Education", London Educational Review, Volume 1, Number 1, Spring 1972.

Perry, P. : "Accountability and Inspection in Higher Education", Higher Education Quarterly, Volume 41, Number 4, Autumn 1987.

Pike, R.M. : "Social Goals and Economic Constraints : Issues of Accessibility to Canadian Higher Education During the 1980's", Education Research and Perspectives, Volume 14, Number 2, December 1987.

Podmore, D. : "The Professions - A Sociologist's Comment", The Australian Journal of Higher Education, Volume 3, Number 3, December 1969.

Popkewitz, T.S. : "A Comparative Perspective on American Teacher Education : Being a Stranger in one's Native Land", Journal of Teacher Education, September/October 1985.

Prewitt, K. : "Civic Education and Scientific Illiteracy", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Price, G. : "Universities Today : Between the Corporate State and the Market", Culture, Education and Society, Volume 39, Number 1, Winter 1984/1985.

Proctor, N. : "Academic Subjects in the BEd (Primary) Course : Some Worrying Evidence", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Volume 11, Number 3, Autumn 1987.

Raths, J. : "Suggested Standards for General Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXI, Number 3, May/June 1980.

Raywid, M.A. : "*Tomorrow's Teachers* and Today's Schools", Teacher College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Ren-Mei, T. et alia, : "Recent Chinese Innovations in Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, September/October 1985.

Rich, J.M. : "A Rationale for the Liberal Education of Educators", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXI, Number 3, May-/June 1980.

Rich, J.M. : "Is Citizenship Education Possible?", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Robinson, T.E. : "Teaching is our Profession", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XIV, Number 2, June 1963.

Rowls, M.D. and Hanes, M.L. : "Teacher Recertification : The Shift Toward Local Control and Governance", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 4, July/August 1982.

Ryan, K. : "The Wrong Report at the Right Time", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Schuttenberg, E.M. : "Preparing the Educated Teacher for the 21st Century", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 4, July/August 1983.

Schwebel, M. : "The Clash of Cultures in Academe : The University and the Education Faculty", Journal of Teacher Education, July/August 1985.

Scott, P. : "Blueprint or Blue Remembered Hills? : The Relevance of the Robbins Report to the Present Reforms of Higher Education", Oxford Review of Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Sedlak, M.W. : "*Tomorrow's Teachers* : The Essential Arguments of the Holmes Group Report", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Selden, W.K. : "The Place of Accreditation in the Governance of Higher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XV, Number 3, September 1964.

Shaker, P. and Ullrich, W. : "Reconceptualizing the Debate over the General Education of Teachers", Journal of Teacher Education, January/February 1987.

Shanker, A. : "Tomorrow's Teachers", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

Shattock, M.L. and Berdahl, R.O. : "The UGC Idea in International Perspective", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Shattock, M. and Berdahl, R. : "The British University Grants Committee 1919-1983 : Changing Relationships with Government and the Universities", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Sims, G. : "The Government's Green Paper : Maximising Difficulties", Culture, Education & Society, Volume 39, Number 4, Autumn 1985.

Singh, A. : "The Indian University Grants Commission", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Singh, R. : "The Role of the University in Contemporary Society", Journal of the University of Durban-Westville, Volume 4, Number 2, 1983.

Slee, P. : "Concern for Skills", Culture, Education & Society, Volume 40, Number1, Winter 1986.

Smith, D.C. et alia, : "Alternative Certification : A Position Statement of AACTE", Journal of Teacher Education, May/June 1985.

Smith, J.P. : "Tidy Minds, Untidy Solutions : University Organization in Ontario", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Smith, T. : "The UGC's Research Rankings Excercise", Higher Education Quarterly, Volume 41, Number 4, Autumn 1987.

Soder, R. : "Tomorrow's Teachers for Whom and for What? : Missing Propositions in the Holmes Group Report", Journal of Teacher Education, November/December 1986.

Sparks, R.K. : "Are We Ready for National Certification of Professional Educators?", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXI, Number 3, Fall 1970.

Stanley, M. : "How to Think Anew About Civic Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Steyn, J.F. : "Teacher Associations 'will have to talk'", SATC Bulletin, Number 24, September 1985.

Taylor, A. : "Educational Development and the Teacher in Training", Education for Development, Journal of the Faculty of Education, University College Cardiff, Volume 1, Number 2, October 1970.

Taylor, J.L. : "The Government's Green Paper : Beyond the Utilitarian Scenario", Culture, Education & Society, Volume 39, Number 4, Autumn 1985.

Taylor, W. : "Robbins and the Education of Teachers", Oxford Review of Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Thorburn, D. and Parker, F. : "New Vocationalism in the Colleges of Higher Education", British Journal of Teacher Education, Volume 6, Number 1, January 1980.

Thorburn, D. : "Sociology and Teacher Training : Some Reflections on Colleges in Transition", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Volume 11, Number 1, Spring 1987.

Tom, A.R. : "The Holmes Group Report : Its Latent Political Agenda", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, 1987.

Totemeyer, G.K.H. : "The University and Africa : The University and its Role in an Underdeveloped Society", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 1, Number 1, 1987.

Totemeyer, G.K.H. : "Education andd Economic Development in South African 'Homelands'", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 3, Number 1, 1989.

Trotter, G.J. : "An Alternative for University Financing in South Africa", South African Journal of Higher Education, Volume 2, Number 2, 1988.

Trow, M. : "Academic Standards and Mass Higher Education", Higher Education Quarterly, Volume 41, Number 3, Summer 1987.

Trow, M. : "Comparative Perspectives on Higher Education Policy", Oxford Review in Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Tymitz-Wolf, B.L. : "The New Vocationalism in Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXV, Number 1, January/February 1984.

Tyson, J.C and Carroll, M.A. : "Will Schools of Education Survive?", The Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXIII, Number 4, Winter 1972.

Usher, R.S. and Bryant, I : "Re-examining the Theory - Practice Relationship in Continuing Professional Education", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 12, Number 2, 1987.

Von Weizsacker, C.C. : "Problems in the Planning of Higher Education", Higher Education, Volume 1, Number 4, November 1972.

Wandira, A. : "University and Community : Evolving Perceptions of the African University", Higher Education, Volume 10, 1981.

Warren, d. : "Moving on", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Watson, D.S. : "Cultural Factors and their Influence on a University", Journal of the University of Durban-Westville, Volume 4, Number 2.

Watts, D. : "Can Campus-Based Preservice Teacher Education Survive? : Part II Professional Knowledge and Professional Studies", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 2, March/April 1982.

Watts, D. : "Can Campus-Based Preservice Teacher Education Survive? : Part I", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 1, January/February 1982.

Watts, D. : "Can Campus-Based Preservice Teacher Education Survive? : Part III", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 3, May/June 1982.

Watts, D. : "Can Campus-Based Preservice Teacher Education Survive? : Part IV Accreditation and Certification", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 4, July/August 1982.

Webb, R.B. and Sherman, R.R. : "Liberal Education : An Aim for Colleges of Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 4, July/August 1983.

Weible, T. and Dumas, W. : "Secondary Teacher Certification Standards in Fifty States", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIII, Number 4, July/August 1982.

Williams, G. : "The Debate About Funding Mechanisms", Oxford Review of Education, Volume 14, Number 1, 1988.

Windham, D.M. : "Social Benefits and the Subsidization of Higher Education : A Critique", Higher Education, Volume 5, 1976.

Wirsing, M.E. : "The Revival of Civic Learning : A Critique", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Wise, A.E. : "Graduate Teacher Education and Teacher Professionalism", Journal of Teacher Education, Septmber/October 1986.

Wisniewski, R. : "The Scholarly Ethos in Schools of Education", Journal of Teacher Education Volume XXXV, Number 5, September/October 1984.

Wittrock, B. : "Excellence of Analysis to Diversity of Advocacy : The Multiple Roles of the Leverhulme Study into the Future of Higher Education", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Wyatt, J.F. : "Ortega y Gasset's *Mission of the University*, : An Appropriate Document for an Age of Economy?", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 6, Number 1, 1981.

Wyatt, J.F. : "Karl Jaspers' *The Idea of the University* : An Existentialist Arguement for an Institution Concerned with Freedom", Studies in Higher Education, Volume 7, Number 1, 1982.

van Niekerk, I. : "A finger in the pie", Publico, February 1986.

Villemain, F.T. : "Civic Learning in the Education of Educators : The Primary Purpose of Schools of Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 6, November/December 1983.

Zadok, M. : "The Israeli Planning and Grants Committee at the Crossroads ; From Shock Absorber to Steering Wheel", Higher Education, Volume 13, 1984.

Zangenberg, F. : "The Concept of the University", Journal of the University of Durban-Westville, Volume 4, Number 2.

Zeichner, K.M. : "Alternative Paradigms of Teacher Education", Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXXIV, Number 3, May/June 1983.

Zimpher, N.L. and Ashburn, E.A. : "Studying the Professional Development of Teachers : How Conceptions of the World Inform the Research Agenda", Journal of Teacher Education, November/December 1985.

Zumwalt, K.K. : "'Tomorrow's Teachers' : Tomorrow's Work", Teachers College Record, Volume 88, Number 3, Spring 1987.

UNPUBLISHED THESES AND DISSERTATIONS

Dhlomo, O.D. : An Evaluation of Some Problems in Teacher Training with Special Reference to the Teacher Training Colleges of KwaZulu, Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of South Africa, 1979.

Naguran, C. : A Critical Study of Aspects of the Political, Constitutional, Administrative and Professional Development of Indian Teacher Education in South Africa with Particular Reference to the Period 1965 - 1984, Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, 1985.

Ngubentombi, S.V.S. : Teacher Education in the Transkei : A Critical and Comparative Study of the Evolution of Selected Aspects of its Administrative, Curricular and Course Structures as an Indicator of Future Policy and Planning in the Provision of Teachers, Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, 1984.

Nicholls, G.C. : A Study of the Process of Professionalisation of Teacher Educators at Colleges of Education, with Special Reference to Public Policy, Organisation and Professional Association, Unpublished Masters Dissertation, University of Durban-Westville, 1987.

Niven, J.M. : Teacher Education in South Africa : A Critical Study of Selected Aspects of its Historical, Curricular and Administrative Development, (Unpublished doctoral dissertation in two volumes.), University of Natal, 1971,

le Roux, A.L. : Autonomy in Colleges of Education - an Historico-Comparative Study, University of South Africa, DEd Thesis, 1980.

le Roux, A.L. : Relative Independence for Colleges of Education with special reference to Natal - An Historical Study and Evaluation, MEd Thesis, University of South Africa, 1978.

le Roux, A.L. : The Liberal Component in Vocational Education and Non-Formal Education in Britain, and its Possible Relevance to the Development of Non-Formal Education in the Republic of South Africa : An Exploratory Study, Unpublished M.A. Thesis at the University of York, 1985.

Pittendrigh, A. : The Technikons in the RSA : An Evaluative Analysis of the Factors Influencing the Development of the Technikons (1967-1985) and an Assessment of their role in Educational Change in the RSA, (Volumes I and II), Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Natal, 1986.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Biebuyck, L.J.T. : The Possibility and Desirability of Degrees Being Conferred by Institutions for Tertiary Education other than Universities, with Reference to Courses at such Institutions, in view of World Trends Today, (Report 0-15), HSRC, Pretoria, 1973.

Buthelezi, G. : The Buthelezi Commission: The Requirements for Stability and Development in KwaZulu and Natal, H & H Publications (Pty) Ltd, Durban, 1982.

Dachs, T.E. et alia : Primary Teacher Education Curriculum for the Future, Cordtek, 1990.

CNAA, : Research Degrees, CNAA, London, 1984.

Committee of Heads of Education, : Criteria for the Evaluation of South African Qualifications for Employment in Education, 1991.

Strumpf, R.H. et alia : Educational Renewal Strategy, Department of National Education, Pretoria, 1991.

Harmse, H.J. et alia : Education for Life, Education Bureau, Department of Education and Culture, House of Representatives, Government Printer, 1989.

Human Sciences Research Council, : Professional Control Over the Teaching Profession in the Republic of South Africa, Human Sciences Research Council, Pretoria, 1978.

Human Sciences Research Council, : Provision of Education in the RSA, Pretoria, 1981. (The de Lange Commission : Report of the Main Committee of the HSRC Investigation into Education).

Human Sciences Research Council, : Provision of Education in the RSA, Pretoria, 1981. (The de Lange Commission : Report of Work Committees).

2. Principles for the Provision of Education in the RSA.

3. Education Management.

4. Education Financing.

5. Education System Planning.

6. Curriculum Development.

11. Demography, Education and Manpower.

13. Recruitment and Training of Teachers.

14. Innovational Strategies in Education.

16. Legal Matters.

Marais, I.J. (Chairman) : Teacher Education for the 21st Century : Final Report of the Main Committee, Natal Education Department, 1988.

Prinsloo, J.G. : Information on Professional Discipline, SATC, 1983.

Report : SANEP 170 : The Structure and Operation of the South African Educational System, Department of National Education, Pretoria, 1985.

Republic of Bophuthatswana, : Report of the Second National Education Commission of 1985-1986 Republic of Bophuthatswana, Mmabatho, 1986.

Republic of South Africa, : Constitutional Committee of the President's Council. First Report, Pretoria, Government Printer. (RP 3/1982)

Republic of South Africa, : Statistics in Brief : 1986 Central Statistical Services, Pretoria, 1986.

Republic of South Africa, : Educational Statistics : 1984 and 1985 : Summary, Central Statistical Services, Pretoria, 1985.

Republic of South Africa, : Main Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Universities, Department of National Education, (Chairman J. van Wyk de Vries), Pretoria, (RP 25/1974)

Republic of South Africa, : Report on the Commission of Inquiry into the Training of White Teachers, (Chairman Dr J.S. Gericke), Pretoria, (RP 29/1969).

Republic of South Africa, : South African Teachers' Council for Whites, Annual Report 1978, (25 March 1977 to 31 March 1978).

Republic of South Africa, : South African Teachers' Council for Whites, Annual Report 1983.

Republic of South Africa, : South African Teachers' Council for Whites, Annual Report 1985.

Republic of South Africa, : South African Teachers' Council for Whites, Annual Report 1986.

Republic of South Africa, : South African Teachers' Council for Whites, Tenth and Summarising Report of the South African Teachers' Council for Whites, 25 March 1977 to 31 October 1986, Pretoria, 1987.

Republic of South Africa, : Income Tax Information Brochure : 1987 Tax Year, (Form IT38S), Department of Finance, RSA, 1987.

Republic of South Africa, : Government Gazette, 31 October 1986, Number 10507, Administration : House of Assembly, Department of Education and Culture, R2290."Regulations in respect of the Teachers' Federal Council.

Republic of South Africa, : White Paper on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa, 1983, Government Printer, Pretoria, 1983.

Republic of South Africa, : First Report of the Teacher's Federal Council, 1 November 1986 - 31 March 1988.

South African Institute of Race Relations, : Social and Economic Update, First Quarter 1988.

South African Teachers' Council, : Untitled (Establishment of the SATC), Pretoria, Undated.

South African Teachers' Council, : South African Teachers' Council for Whites Handbook, SATC, Pretoria, 1979.

South African Teachers' Council, : Bulletin, SATC, Pretoria. (1980 - 1983).

South African Teachers' Council, : Newsletter - To Teacher Trainers,
Number 1 - March 1984.
Number 2 - August 1984.

South African Teachers' Council, : Guidelines for Professional Conduct : Principals/Teachers (Drafted in Pursuance of SATC Symposia), South African Teachers' Council, Arcadia, 1983.

Syncom, : Towards a Community Based System of Education, Privatisation Position Paper No. 3 of 1986.

Teachers' Federal Council, : News Flashes, April 1987.

Teachers' Federal Council, : News Flashes, August 1987.

Spies, P.G. van Z, : Professional Control Over the Teaching in the Republic of South Africa, H.S.R.C., Report No. 0.65, 1978.

ACTS

Republic of South Africa : National Education Policy Act, 1967 (Act 39 of 1967).

Republic of South Africa, : National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1969 (Act 73 of 1969).

Republic of South Africa, : National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1974 (Act 92 Of 1974).

Republic of South Africa, : National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1975 (Act 17 of 1975).

Republic of South Africa, : South African Teachers' Council For Whites Act, 1976 (Act 116 of 1976).

Republic of South Africa, : National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1978 (Act 25 of 1978).

Republic of South Africa, : National Education Policy Amendment Act, 1982 (Act 25 of 1982).

Republic of South Africa, : Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983).

Republic of South Africa, : Commission for Administration Act, 1984 (Act 65 of 1984).

Republic of South Africa, : National Policy for General Affairs Act, 1984 (Act 76 of 1984).

Republic of South Africa, : National Education Policy Amendment Act (House of Assembly), 1986 (Act 103 of 1986).

Republic of South Africa, : Certification Council for Technikon Education Act, 1986 (Act 88 of 1986).

Republic of South Africa, : South African Certification Council Act, 1986 (Act 85 of 1986).

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

Anonymous, : The Report of the University Education Commission, Volume 1, The Manager of Publications, Delhi, 1949.

Anonymous, : "Future Strategy : Principles and Operation", Council for National Academic Awards, London, 1987.

Anonymous, : "Charter for Teacher Unity", Mentor, Natal Teachers' Society, April, 1983.

Association of Commonwealth Universities, : Universities Facing the Challenge of the Eighties : Can They Survive in Their Present Form? : Seminar Papers Presented During the ACU Council Meeting held in the Caribbean 15-27 April 1982, The Association of Commonwealth Universities, London, 1982.

Boyce, A.N. : The Education of Teachers : Trends in Great Britain : A Report of an Investigation, Johannesburg College of Education, 1979.

Boyce, A.N. : Educational Practice in Terms of Educational Policy - An Evaluation. Papers Read at the Eighteenth Congress of the South African Association for the Advancement of Education held at Durban, January, 1980.

Carnegie Foundation, : Missions of the College Curriculum : A Contemporaty Review with Suggestions : A Commentary of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Jossey Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1977.

Clifford-Vaughan, A. : The Year at UDW : 1987, University of Durban-Westville, 1987.

Cluderay, T.M. (Editor) : Aspects of Education. The Professional Education of Teachers, Journal of the Institute of Education, The University of Hull, Number 3, December 1965.

Coetzer, J.A. : "Terms of Reference", Natal Education Council, 8 May 1989.

Conacher, R.C. : "The Future of Colleges of Education in South Africa", Unpublished address delivered at Edgewood College of Education on 22 March 1988.

Davies, T. : Some Aspects of Preservice Education for the Secondary School : Trends in the United States of America and in Great Britain : A Report of an Overseas Study Tour : September/November 1980, Pretoria, 1981.

Department of National Education, : "Untitled Brochure on The Department of National Education", Pretoria, undated.

Eason, T.W. : Colleges of Education : Academic or Professional? Part One : The Principals and Their Colleges, Department of Higher Education, University of London Institute of Education, National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, London, 1970.

Eason, T.W. and Croll, E.J. : Colleges of Education : Academic or Professional? Part Two : Staff and Student Attitudes in Colleges of Education, Department of Higher Education, University of London Institute of Education, National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, London, 1971.

Freer, D. and Randall, P. (Editors) : Educating the Educators. Proceedings of a Conference on the Provision of Educators in South Africa : The University's Role, Department of Education, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 1983.

Froomkin, J. (Editor) : The Crisis in Higher Education : The Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science, Volume 35, Number 2, The Academy of Political Science, New York, 1983.

Goodlad, S. (Editor) : Education for the professions. Quis Custodiet? : Papers presented to the twentieth annual conference of the Society for Research into Education, 1984., The Society for Research into Higher Education & NFER Nelson, Guildford, 1984.

Henry, N.B. : Educating for the Professions : The Sixty First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education : Part Two, The Yearbook Committee, The National Society for the Study of Education, Chicago, 1962.

Lemmer, J.L. : Letter - SATC : "Registration with the Teachers' Federal Council, dated 3/10/1986.

le Roux, A.L. : "Alternative Models for Colleges of Education : Address Delivered at the Annual Congress (11-13 January 1989) of the Education Association of South Africa (EASA) on the theme 'Education in South Africa : Future Perpectives' held at the University of South Africa, Pretoria, on 11 January 1989.

le Roux, A.L. : The Rationalisation of Teacher Education in KwaZulu-Natal (or some ideas to take to the negotiating table), Address delivered at the Conference held by the Faculty of Education Curriculum Development Unit on "The Education of Secondary School Teachers", at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg on 9 and 10 September 1986.

le Roux, A.L. : "The Devolution of the Control of Education", Mentor, April 1985.

le Roux, A.L. (Chairman) : "Co-operation and Co-ordination of Teacher Education in Natal and KwaZulu", Human Sciences Research Council, 1983.

Macmillan, R.G. : Full Steam Ahead. But Where is Ahead?, Address at Honours Day Ceremony of the Teachers' College, Bulawayo, on 28 November 1969.

Mac Millan, R.G. and Niven, J.M. : Towards the Coordination of Teacher Training in South Africa, Occasional Paper Number Three, Department of Education, University of Natal, 1969.

Lawrenson, J.A. : "Manpower Training and Development in the 80's", Manpower 2000, Information Series 7, National Committee for Manpower, Pretoria.

National Education Association : Handbook 1981-1982, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1981.

Niven, J.M. (Chairman) : The Educational Systems of the Republic of South Africa. An analytical and critical representation of the systems in existence in the Republic of South Africa as at February 1981, Department of Education, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, 1982.

Shindler, J. : Separate but equal : some comments on de Lange and the White Paper", South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg, 1984.

Saunders, S. : "Freedom, the Universities, and the Future : 1987 Presidential Address", South African Institute of Race Relations Topical Briefing, Johannesburg, 1987.

South African Research Service, : South African Review 1 : Same Foundations, New Facades ?, Ravan Press, Johannesburg, 1983.

South African Research Service, : South African Review 2 : Ravan Press, Johannesburg, 1984.

South African Research Service, : South African Review 3 : Ravan Press, Johannesburg, 1986.

South African Research Service, : South African Review 4 : Ravan Press, Johannesburg, 1987.

South African Teachers' Council, An untitled brochure on: The Establishment of the Council", SATC, 1977.

Sutherland, D.I.M. : Personal letter and documentation on The General Teaching Council for Scotland, 7 June 1988.

Taylor, P. : An Evaluation of the Affiliation Between the University and Five Colleges of Education in Bophuthatswana, 1987.

"The Teaching Profession - Divided and Misruled", Financial Mail, 2 May 1986.

Tunmer, R. (Editor) : The Future of Education in South Africa. Proceedings of the National Education Conference : The de Lange Report : Assessment and Implementation, The 1820 Foundation, Grahamstown, 1982.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation : Methods of Establishing Equivalences Between Degrees and Diplomas, Prepared by the International Association of Universities, Unesco, Paris, 1970.

University of the Witwatersrand, : Education and the South African Economy : The 1961 Education Panel Second Report, Witwatersrand University Press, Johannesburg, 1966.

Vermaak, D. and du Plessis, A. : "A Statistical Analysis of the Black Teaching Force in South Africa with special reference to KwaZulu.

Willemse, B.F. : KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture : Proposed Extension to Colleges of Education, Information provided at an address delivered at the Conference "A Window on the Nineties : A Conference on the Professional Growth and Development of Teachers", held at the Technikon Natal on 19-21 January 1989.

BRITISH OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Board of Education, : Teachers and Youth Leaders : Report of the Committee Appointed by the President of the Board of Education to Consider the Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, Board of Education, London, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1944. (The Mc Nair Report).

Committee on Higher Education. : Higher Education Report of the Committee appointed by the Prime Minister under the Chairmanship of Lord Robbins, 1961 - 1963, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1963.

Department of Education and Science. : Teacher Education and Training. A Report by a Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, under the Chairmanship of Lord James of Rusholme, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1972.

Department of Education and Science. : Report of the Study Group on the Government Colleges of Education, (Chairman T.R. Weaver), Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1966. Institute of Education, Amsterdam, 1981.

Jarratt, A. (Chairman) : Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals Steering Committee for Efficiency Studies in Universities : Report on the University of Essex, February, 1985.

Jarratt, A. (Chairman) : Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals Steering Committee for Efficiency Studies in Universities : Report on the University of Nottingham, February, 1985.

Jarratt, A. (Chairman) : Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals Steering Committee for Efficiency Studies in Universities : Report on the University College of London, February, 1985.

Jarratt, A. (Chairman) : Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals Steering Committee for Efficiency Studies in Universities : Report on the Loughborough University of Technology, February, 1985.

Jarratt, A. (Chairman) : Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals Steering Committee for Efficiency Studies in Universities : Report on the University of Sheffield, 1985.

Jarratt, A. (Chairman) : Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals : Report of the Steering Committee for Efficiency Studies in Universities, March, 1985.

Leverhulme Report, : Excellence in Diversity : Towards a Strategy for Higher Education, Society for Research into Higher Education, Guildford, 1983.

University of Oxford : Report of Commission of Inquiry : University of Oxford, Oxford at the Clarendon Press, 1966.

AMERICAN OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

American Council on Education, : The Improvement of Teacher Education : A Final Report by the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington D.C., 1946.

Anonymous, : The Second Newman Report: National Policy and Higher Education: Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1973.

Department of Health, Education and Welfare : The Second Newman Report : National Policy and Higher Education : Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1973.

UNPUBLISHED ADDRESSES AND DOCUMENTS

Letter from Mr D. Sutherland, Registrar of The General Teaching Council for Scotland, dated 7 June 1988.

Letter from Mr A. Symonds, Acting Director-General of Education of the Department of Education, New Zealand, dated 2 June 1988.

Address by Mr D. Sutherland, Registrar of The General Teaching Council for Scotland, delivered at Ntuzuma College of Education on 17 March 1989.

Address by Dr O. Dhloma, former Minister of Education and Culture, KwaZulu Government, to the Natal Education Board on 20 August 1990.

Network (South African Television Programme), 31 January 1989.

DICTIONARIES AND ENCYCLOPAEDIAE

English, H.B. and English, A.C. : A Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms. A Guide to Usage, Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., London, 1958.

Page, T.G. et alia, : International Dictionary of Education, Kogan Page, London, 1977.

Pratt, H. (Editor) : Dictionary of Sociology and Related Sciences, Littlefield, Adams & Co., Totowa, New Jersey, 1966.

Roget, P.M. : Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases Penguin Books Ltd, Middlesex, England, 1964.

Sinclair, J. : Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary, Collins, London, 1987.

Scruton, R. : A Dictionary of Political Thought, Pan Books in association with The Macmillan Press, London, 1982.

Onions, C.T. (Editor) : The Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles, Third Edition, Oxford at the Clarendon Press, 1977.

Blishen, E. (Editor) : Blond's Encyclopaedia of Education, Blond Educational, London, 1969.

Dunkin, M.J. : The International Encyclopaedia of Teaching and Teacher Education, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1987.